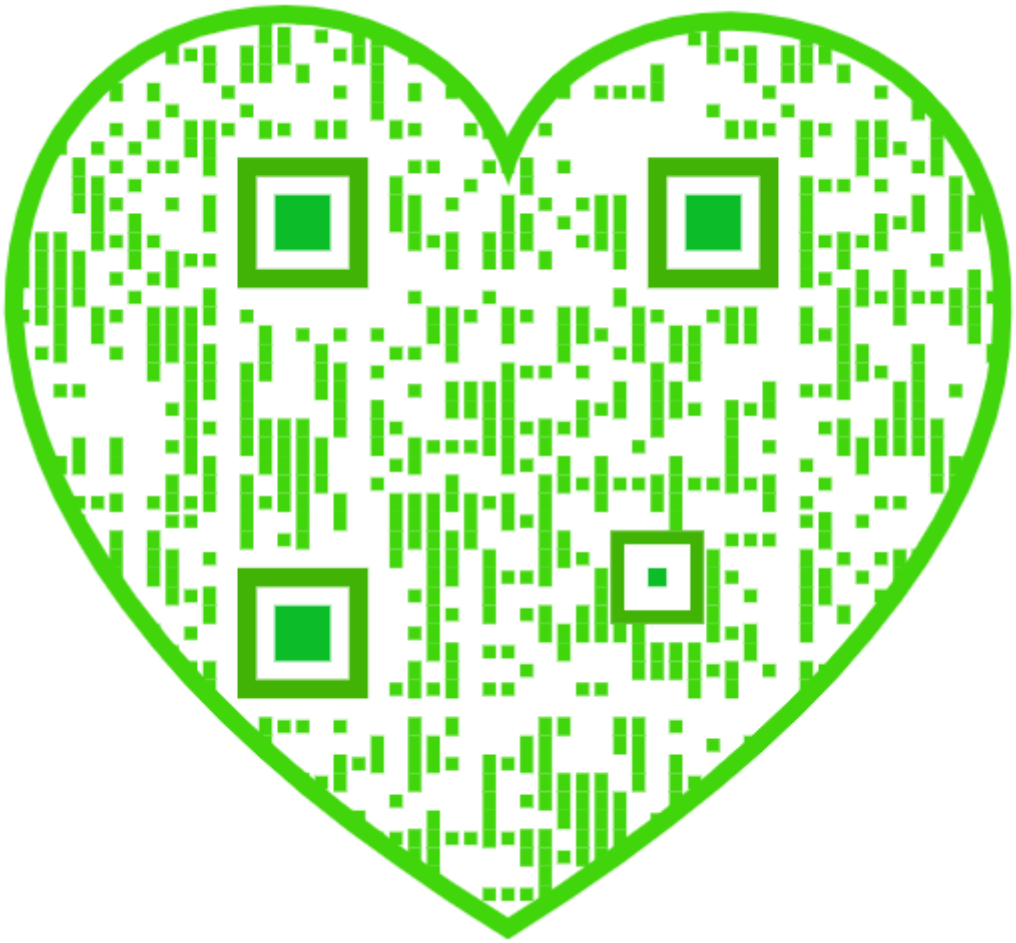
HOME EDUCATION

COOKING DRESS

The American Home Book

HOME READING

HOUSEKEEPING NURSING



PUBLISHERS' NOTE.

The volumes of PUTNAM'S HANDY BOOK SERIES, planned to give practical information, compiled from the best authorities, on all matters connected with home interests, have met with a wide-spread and enduring popularity. The publishers have reason to believe that a selection of some of the more important of these volumes, issued in more compact and less expensive form, and covering the essential requirements of every home circle in the departments of education, reading, house-furnishing, dress, emergencies, care of the sick, etc., will be found of service to thousands of households, and under this belief the AMERICAN HOME BOOK has been prepared.

THE

AMERICAN HOME BOOK

WITH

DIRECTIONS AND SUGGESTIONS FOR COOKING, DRESS, NURSING, EMERGENCIES, HOUSE FURNISHING, HOME EDUCATION, HOME READING,

ETC., ETC.

BY

CHARLES DUDLEY WARNER, GEORGE CARY EGGLESTON, FRANK R. STOCKTON, EDWARD EVERETT HALE, JOSEPH COOK, GEORGE H. HOPE, M.D., LYMAN ABBOTT. FREDERICK B. PERKINS, ETC., ETC., ETC.

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By George Cary Eggleston.

Hints for Home Reading.
By Charles Dudley Warner, Fred. B. Perkins, Henry Ward Beecher, Edward Everett Hale, Joseph Cook, Lyman Abbott, etc., etc.

The Home: Where it should be and What to put in it.
By Frank R. and Marian Stockton.

Hints on Dress.
By Ethel C. Gale.

What Shall We Eat? A Manual for Housekeepers.

Till the Doctor Comes, and How to Help Him.
By George H. Hope, M.D.

A Manual of Nursing. Prepared for the Training School for Nurses attached to Bellevue Hospital.

HOW TO EDUCATE YOURSELF:

WITH OR WITHOUT MASTERS.

BY

GEO. CARY EGGLESTON.

NEW YORK
G. P. PUTNAM'S SONS
27 AND 29 WEST 23D STREET

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PREFACE.

In preparing this little book, I have done the work conscientiously, whether it shall prove to be well or ill done.

In every matter treated, I have given the advice I should give to a son or a brother—drawing my materials from every available source.

The narrow limits of the volume have compelled me to speak *ex cathedra* in many cases when I should have preferred to reverently cite authority, or to carefully state to the reader the premises from which my conclusions were drawn.

If I have spoken dogmatically, however, I would have the student remember that the whole spirit of my teaching is that he should never accept blindly the authority of any man or of any book, and to this rule my own little volume certainly does not claim to be an exception.

Brooklyn, *September*, 1872. G. C. E.

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ERRATUM.

On p. 52, M. Marcel's work is said to be out of print. This, it appears, is not now the case, as the book is included in Messrs. D. Appleton & Co.'s Catalogue.

HOW TO EDUCATE YOURSELF.

INTRODUCTION.

THE NATURE AND PURPOSE OF THE BOOK.

Lest the purpose and meaning of this manual shall be misunderstood, let me say at the outset that I have no patent system of easy education to present. I can point out no "royal road to learning," for the reason that there is none, and in the very nature of things there never can be one.

And yet the sole purpose of this volume is to make the road to learning and culture somewhat easier than it is, particularly in the case of students who have no master.

Every educated man is, in some sense, self-educated. No teacher, whatever his abilities may be, can force an education upon an unwilling pupil. Furthermore, no teacher can educate a persistently idle pupil. He can bridge over difficulties ; he can point out the way ; he can advise and direct ; he can stimulate the student to activity ; but the real work must be done by the student himself, if it be done at all.

There is no denying the fact that regular teachers and regular schools are necessary to some students and

very valuable to all, and I have no sympathy whatever with the prevalent cant which teaches that the men commonly called "self-made" are greater, or better, or wiser than those whose acquirements and culture have been obtained through more regular channels. Dr. Franklin was a wise man and an able one, and Mr. Greeley has achieved a grand success in his profession. Elihu Burritt learned a good deal about languages while yet at the forge, and Robert Collyer has not forgotten how to make a horse-shoe while he has been learning how to preach an eloquent sermon. But all these men, and others like them, would have been even more successful, or at any rate their success would have come to them earlier in life, if they had had the advantages of a regular training. The mistake commonly made is that of attributing their greatness to their want of schooling, when in point of fact they are great in spite of that want, because they have by untiring industry supplied the defect, doing without teachers that which they could have done much more easily and much more perfectly with them. Hugh Miller wrought out his knowledge of geology from the rocks in which he worked as a craftsman; but it does not follow that the best road to geological lore lies through the business of a quarryman or a stonecutter.

Let no student delude himself with the idea that he is above the need of instructors. If he can attend good schools he should do so by all means, and his education so acquired will be much more satisfactory, much more perfectly rounded than it ever could be otherwise.

But if attendance upon school instruction be impossible, or if the student be cut short in it, there is no oc-

casion for him to despair, or to abandon the work of educating himself. If he is to be educated at all, he must educate himself in any case, and while the task would be much easier in school than out, it is not impossible of accomplishment wholly without teachers.

The chief service which a teacher is called upon to render an earnest student, is that of guiding and directing his studies; advising him what branches to pursue, and how to follow them with the best results. And herein lies the chief advantage which the earnest student in school has over the earnest student out of school. The one has his course marked out for him, and is instructed carefully in the readiest and surest means of mastering it. The other must mark out his own course, with such advice as he can get, and must pursue it after methods of his own devising, for the most part. Again, the one has, presumably, more time at his disposal, and better facilities every way, than the other, and therefore has less need to know how to economize his time closely in the selection and pursuit of his studies.

It is to cure precisely these defects that this book is, in the main, designed. My purpose is to supply, as far as possible, the place of a teacher to teacherless students, guiding them to a proper selection of subjects for study, and suggesting the best methods of pursuing each.

To this end I shall make free use of other people's experience, as well as my own, giving that which seems to me best, in every case, whether the idea be new or old, my own or some other person's. The plan of the book is a simple one. Each class of study will be examined as to its nature, its value, the peculiar advan-

tages arising from the information contained in it, and from the culture it brings. Its difficulty, and all other circumstances bearing upon the student's selection, will be placed fairly before him, so that he may choose advisedly the branches to which he will give his attention.

After this, in each case, the best methods of pursuing the study will be given, together with such other hints, suggestions and warnings as every earnest and competent teacher finds frequent occasion to give.

In regard to reading and study outside of text-books, a similar plan will be pursued. I shall endeavor to guide the student in the selection of his literature by pointing out the nature and value of different classes of books, the kind of culture and the kind of information each gives, and to prepare him, as far as practicable, to make a judicious selection and arrangement of his reading matter for himself.

The book, as will be seen at a glance, is intended principally for students who must educate themselves outside of schools and colleges ; but I am persuaded that even students whose advantages are of the best, will find many things to help them in these pages, and I write with the hope that my little book will supply to this class of students a kind of guidance of which I myself often felt the need both in school and at college.

A work of this kind must, in the nature of things, be very imperfect, because of the narrowness of its limits, if for no other reason ; but having had frequent occasion to counsel and aid persons engaged in the work of self-education, I come to the task now, knowing pretty well the nature of the difficulties which be-

set this class of students. If the pages which follow shall be found to supply to them at all adequately the guidance and counsel they need, I shall be abundantly satisfied.

CHAPTER I.

HOW TO MARK OUT A COURSE OF STUDY.

WHAT TO STUDY.

The first point to be decided in beginning every education is what to study. The student who can go to school and to college has the question answered for him, though not always wisely; but he who must decide it for himself, is usually puzzled by the multiplicity of possible studies, and by his ignorance both of their character and of his own wants. And yet it is of the utmost importance that he should decide this question correctly. An error here is always serious, and sometimes the failure to master a badly-chosen subject leads to the abandonment of all effort in despair.

A COMMON ERROR.

It is a common error of people studying without a teacher to suppose that they must follow the course of the schools, taking not only every subject, but every text-book, in the order of school arrangement. To see the folly of this it is only necessary to remember that the student without a master has less time than the schoolboy to give to study, (else he might himself go

to school,) and that his progress will naturally be somewhat slower than that of the pupils for whom the school course is intended, aided as they are by systematic instruction. Besides all this, there is a great deal of time consumed in the schools over exercises that are certainly not necessary or even useful to an earnest student, so resolved upon securing an education as to undertake it without the ordinary helps. This is due partly perhaps to the fact that there are idle pupils in every school whose first need is to be made active in study, even if it be done by otherwise useless exercises ; but much more largely, doubtless, to the want of judicious condensation in the text-books. The best-cultivated men in America, for instance, unless their avocations lead them to make geographical study a specialty, do not remember enough of their bulky, graded school text-books on the subject, to fill more than a score of these pages. They remember all that is worth remembering. They know all the leading facts, perhaps, but these might have been written in the smallest of school-books and learned in a few weeks, while every schoolboy plods for years through volume after volume full of petty geographical details of no consequence in themselves, never remembered, and certainly not worth the learning to a young man who has his education to get without assistance from others. And the same thing is true in a greater or less degree of almost every other branch of school study. The school course is intended for pupils who have time and opportunity to master it. It has much that is almost wholly useless in it, and it is certainly not suited, as a whole, to students who must be their own teachers.

WHAT THEN, SHOULD BE THE STUDENT'S COURSE?

Certainly not the same in every case; hardly the same in any two cases. The question is one that must be decided with reference to the age, capacity and circumstances of each individual. The one who has hardly any leisure cannot master many things, and his slender list of studies should embrace only the ones most desirable for him to follow, while his fellow, whose leisure is more abundant, should make use of it in pursuing a wider course. It is very true that in all knowledge there is profit, but all knowledge is not equally profitable, and the man whose education must be a partial one at best, should aim to make it embrace such parts of the whole as will best serve the purposes of education in his particular case. And to enable us to ascertain what will do this, it is necessary that we shall inquire at the outset—

WHAT ARE THE PURPOSES OF EDUCATION?

Different people have different ideas of life, and accordingly they pursue their studies with all kinds of ends in view. Men sometimes work pretty diligently over their books, with no higher motive than a desire to make a creditable appearance in society. Young people often have an ambition to appear learned with no great desire to be so, and so seek just enough of erudition to enable them to talk of things they know very little about, as if they understood them.

But education has two definite purposes to serve, and one or both of these should be in the mind of the student from first to last. The object most commonly

sought by the student is practical utility. He studies because learning and the intellectual culture it brings with it are things that have a market value ; because an educated man can *make money* more readily and more surely than an uneducated one can ; because his education will open up to him more agreeable business pursuits than an untaught man can follow. To a certain extent every man in this busy country of ours is influenced by these considerations. We have no recognized aristocracy, and no entailed estates, and therefore no man, among us, can be sure in advance that he will never need to make his own way in the world.

With the people for whose benefit chiefly I write, those who are compelled to educate themselves without teachers, the practical utility of education is often of course the main consideration ; but even these would do well to keep before them the higher purpose of culture, which is to fit the man for his most perfect work in life, to make him, as nearly as his natural capacity will allow, a completely cultured man, balanced, trained to the use of all his faculties and able to command their highest and best exercise at will. That even people without the advantages of academic training may accomplish something like this is sufficiently seen in the fact that the present editor of the *Atlantic Monthly*, a scholar, a poet, an author and a critic, with certainly very few if any superiors in America, in the matter of refined and varied culture, left school to learn a trade at the age of ten, and has never had a master since.

Everybody is not a Mr. Howells, however, and few young men can hope to accomplish all that he has ; but failing in that, it is well that the student shall feel the high possibilities of his life and appreciate the nobler

purposes of his work. While he labors to fit himself for his business, he will work none the less earnestly for feeling that his study is making him more and more the man nature intended that he should be.

THE COMPARATIVE VALUES OF VARIOUS STUDIES.

Whether the student contemplates a brief course or an extended one, it is equally necessary for him to select his studies with reference first to their comparative intrinsic values, and secondly with reference to their comparative values to him individually. To do this intelligently he must bear in mind that there are two distinct uses of study. The first of these is the acquisition of knowledge, and the second is intellectual training.

Each is good in its kind. Each has a practical value. The man who knows arithmetic finds daily use for the mere knowledge he has gained, in all the affairs of life. But the value of the mental discipline he has received in the study of arithmetic, while it may be less apparent, is no less real than the other. And this is true too of every other branch of a well-ordered education. Each is doubly useful. Each helps to train the mind to proper action, and each furnishes some knowledge which is of use in itself. But all are not equally valuable in either of these ways, and the proportion of time and attention to be given to each should be regulated with reference to their comparative importance.

HERBERT SPENCER'S CLASSIFICATION.

Mr. Herbert Spencer, in his work on education, has attempted to make an elaborate classification of the various subjects of study, and to arrange them in the order

of their relative comparative importance, a task that he is as well qualified as anybody else, perhaps, to perform, but one in which even he has only partially succeeded. Such a classification in a manual like this, intended mainly for students without masters, would be manifestly impracticable, and hence nothing of the kind is attempted. I prefer to offer some plain suggestions which will aid the student to ascertain for himself just what he wants.

THE FACTORS INVOLVED.

In the first place, then, it is necessary to take into account your age and whatever other circumstances there may be which tend to limit you in point of time.

If you are already grown, with the cares of business about you, your time for self-education is necessarily very limited, and your selection of studies must of course be made with reference to this fact, so that you may not spend any portion of your scanty leisure upon that which is not absolutely essential. Take an inventory of the time at your disposal, as you would of your capital before entering upon business, in order that you may invest it wisely.

It is next necessary to ask yourself what your practical necessities are in the matter of learning ; what your business in life is, or is to be ; what information you will especially need in that business, and what studies will give you the necessary knowledge. And this is clearly a point worthy of attention in any case, whether the education is to be abundant or scanty. To the man who intends to make himself a physician, for instance, a knowledge of chemistry is of prime importance, while the higher mathematics furnish him very little of

any immediate value. To the one who would be an engineer, on the other hand, mathematics is the one thing especially needful. I am speaking now with reference solely to the value of the information gained in these studies, and not of their value as intellectual exercises. Decide then, secondly, what you want in the matter of *learning*—what studies will give you the information you most need for the accomplishment of your ends, whatever these may be.

The third point to be determined in settling upon a course of study is more difficult, and in the very nature of things can never be very accurately decided in the beginning by the student himself. Simply stated, the question is, "What mental discipline do I need?" and it is one which should recur at every step of the student's progress. It is one which every cultivated man asks himself constantly. It governs the already accomplished scholar in the selection of his books for reading even more than it influences the student in marking out his course of study, and it can never be wholly determined in advance. Just here comes in the higher purpose of education, the making of a well-balanced man. It is the training of all the faculties to their fullest capacity, the development of all the forces, the just subjection of each to the whole, that fits the man for his most perfect work, and most completely fulfills the purpose of education; and the nearer we come to this ideal condition of perfect and symmetrical development, in body, mind and morals, the better are we prepared for the successful pursuit of our especial businesses in life.

But aside from this, in nearly every profession and trade there exists a necessity for mental discipline in specific directions. A special intellectual development

is of practical value, just as the possession of a particular kind of information is, and to this extent the especial needs of the student in the matter of intellectual culture as a preparation for a specific business career may be decided in advance with tolerable accuracy. In a large degree, indeed, the culture made necessary by merely economic considerations depends upon the character of the student himself. If he be of dreamy mood, visionary, absent, lacking control of his intellectual operations, the mathematics and the physical sciences will tend of course to correct the fault, and will have a value to him which they would otherwise lack. And so with every other branch of study. Each may serve to correct some intellectual fault, to supply an intellectual want, or to strengthen the man in a point of weakness. And in deciding what and how much to study, reference must of course be had to the peculiar intellectual needs that are to be supplied. Let the student, then, after he has taken a fair inventory of the time at his disposal, ask himself—

1*st. What knowledge do I most need?*

2*nd. What culture do I most need?*

And when he shall have answered these questions, his way will be clear to the marking out of a course of study suited to his especial case.

But let him remember that in all knowledge there is profit, and that the wider his culture is, the more nearly he will come to the perfection of manhood at which he should aim, the better prepared he will be to do his best work. While he must consider first his actual and immediate educational wants, he should never lose sight of the fact that the course of study he has marked out for himself will supply these but imper-

fectly, and that other knowledge and other culture are desirable, not only in a general way, but also as bearing directly upon his success in life. With this in view he will find abundant opportunity, while pursuing his prescribed course of study and reading, to widen it somewhat at times; and by some of the modes of economizing time and labor suggested elsewhere in this volume, he may almost certainly enlarge the range of both the information and the culture he has prescribed for himself.

For the sake of convenience let me briefly sum up the spirit of what I have said thus far, in direct sentences :

Take an inventory of the time at your disposal, that you may know how much you can study.

Do not attempt too much, lest you become discouraged and fail altogether.

On the other hand, remember that within the limits imposed by your circumstances, the more you shall master the better educated you will be.

Select your studies with reference first to the value of the learning they will give you, and secondly to the value of the culture their mastery will bring.

Give the preference to those branches which will tend most directly to fit you for your special business, but enlarge your culture and information as opportunity shall offer.

Such are the general principles that should guide the student in marking out his course of study, and to a large extent each must apply them for himself ; but some more specific directions may be of service, and in fulfillment of my design to make this manual as largely useful as possible, I give them in their proper places.

CHAPTER II.

COMMON SCHOOL STUDIES.

THE WASTE OF TIME.

It is a singular fact, perhaps, but a fact nevertheless which everybody except the teachers themselves recognizes, that there is a larger proportion of useless work expended in the common schools than anywhere else. Many of the branches taught there are wholly useless in themselves, and nearly all the others are so overloaded with unimportant details that the pupil loses sight of their real purpose and quits them at last, wearied with misspent labor, having gained but little of the information or culture they should have brought him.

OF GEOGRAPHY

I have already spoken. Pupils spend years in studying text-books not one tenth part of which is worth learning, while not one twentieth of their contents is ever remembered. As soon as the examinations are over the student begins to forget—forgetting much more rapidly than he learned—and in forgetting, he sometimes loses the useful with the useless parts.

Clearly there is too much geography taught. The books are too large and too numerous. They have alto-

gether too many details in them, and moreover, no book whatever is necessary to the learning of all that anybody except a professional geographer or a navigator needs to know of geography. A brief examination of the globes and a few weeks' earnest study of good maps will serve to give the student a fair general knowledge of geography, and this is all that anybody not professionally pursuing geographical studies ever remembers or needs to remember. Reference to a map is always readily made when fuller information on any particular point is wanted, just as reference to a dictionary or encyclopædia is, and to attempt to learn and remember all the facts of geography in detail is almost as absurd as it would be to commit an unabridged dictionary to memory as an introduction to English.

HOW TO STUDY GEOGRAPHY.

I say, therefore, to the student without a master, waste no time in the study of geographies. Learn the general outlines and relative localities of seas and continents by examining the globe, and then give yourself to a progressive study of maps until you are familiar with the chief facts of geography—that is to say, till you know the relative localities and the general outlines of all the countries, the nationality and general features of the chief rivers, ranges of mountains, etc., and the places of the world's great cities, etc., on the maps.

Take first a general map of each continent; then one of each country; and finish your study of the subject by a careful scrutiny of the State and local maps of your own country. When you shall have done this you will have a good general knowledge of geography, and very

few people have more than this, or need more. An occasional reference to good maps, afterwards will perserve and greatly add to the information thus gained.

ARITHMETIC,

of course, everybody needs to know, and it cannot be learned too thoroughly. But in the ordinary way of teaching and learning it, a good deal of time is wasted, and the best results are rarely secured. There is a good deal of unnecessary matter in the text-books, and that which is necessary is too often so put as to lead the student to lose sight of its proper purpose, and thus lose the advantage he should gain from its study.

Let the student bear in mind from first to last that everything in Mathematics is *fact;* that every fact there has been *discovered* and nothing invented. Let him remember that what are commonly called rules are not rules at all, but that each is merely a statement of one of the ways in which certain principles may be applied to the solution of certain classes of problems, and that more than one of these principles may be used in almost every case. Let me explain this a little more at length. The student finds many pages devoted to common fractions, and a like number to decimals. Under each head is arranged a number of problems, together with a rule for working them. By all the arrangements made for him, by the classifications of the book, by the traditions of the schoolroom, and by every other direct and indirect means, he is forced to the conclusion that some of these problems are of a kind to be solved by the one rule, while the others are of a totally different character and can be wrought only upon the other principle. Of course any teacher, upon

being questioned, would tell a student that this is not the case; but there is really nothing in the ordinary way of learning and teaching arithmetic to suggest such questioning, and, with one remarkable exception, I have never known a teacher who thought it necessary or desirable to explain the point without waiting for accident to suggest inquiry I would have the student remember constantly that Addition, Subtraction, Multiplication and Division, are the only fundamental rules of arithmetic, and that all the others are but applications of these. He should bear in mind also that the various problems given may each be solved in more than one way—that their solution is not the object of his study; that their solution is not a matter of any importance whatever, except as it exercises him in the application of the principles involved and verifies the correctness and accuracy of his understanding. With these points established in his mind, let him go to work to learn each of the principles involved,—that is to say, let him pass nothing that he does not fully understand, let him accept nothing as true until he fully understands the fact that it is true, and the reason why it is true; or, if he must pass it, let him refer to it again and again until he does understand it. He will then need no rules, and will not be dependent, in after life, upon a fallacious memory for rules, which, even if remembered correctly, might readily be misapplied by one who had failed to master the principles involved.

Teachers sometimes tell pupils all this, and some of them succeed in impressing the fact upon the minds of those under their tuition, but in altogether too many cases their system of teaching makes it easy for the parrot pupil to make a better show than the one who

labors over principles, and thus there is an immediate and constant temptation before every pupil to do that which the teacher is continually cautioning him not to do. On the other hand there are teachers whose indolence or incompetence leads them to omit even the verbal caution, while the student without a master stands in especial need of the warning.

I remember a schoolfellow of my own who went with me through the arithmetic, solved every problem, knew every rule, and was regarded as fellow of the best of us. His practice was to commit each rule to memory, and to follow it clause by clause in the working of every problem under it. He passed good examinations, of course, and afterwards graduated well in a commercial college. I happened to be with him ten years later, when he was attempting to fill the post of bill clerk in a commission house. His calculations for several days went unchallenged, as the bookkeeper was overburdened with other duties and supposed him competent. Before his first week ended, however, he came hurriedly from his desk to ask confidentially about a point in his practical arithmetic. He had to calculate the total value of a given number of bushels of corn at $1.08 per bushel. He had set the figures down in the ordinary way, had multiplied by the eight, and now *wanted to know what to do with the nought!* Of course in school, while his "rules" were fresh in his mind, no such difficulty had bothered him; but now, remembering no verbal rule for the case, he was unable to work this simple problem in multiplication. The case is an extreme one, doubtless, but it serves to illustrate the importance of the precept I am endeavoring to impress upon the reader. I would have him under-

stand each operation as he makes it—comprehend each principle before he undertakes to use it, and know why he does each thing as soon as he learns that he is to do it. To do this by means of books only is often difficult. The principles are all explained, of course, in every good arithmetic, but the explanations are not always sufficiently lucid, and the student often falls into the delusion of thinking that he understands a matter because he can repeat the explanation, even when this explanation is by no means clear to his comprehension. To remedy this there is nothing so good as a resort to object lessons. I have had occasion to explain difficulties of this class to a good many pupils, many of them advanced far beyond the point where the difficulty occurred, and I have found a resort to the simplest forms of numbers, and an explanation by means of actual, tangible objects, far better than anything else possible.

In one instance, I remember, a bright, keen-witted girl who was studying algebra came to me for assistance. I explained the problem in hand so that she could work it readily, but I saw that she only dimly comprehended my most labored explanations of the principles involved, and I was not satisfied with this. I questioned her to ascertain where her difficulty lay, and was led presently to ask her :

"Do you understand the multiplication and division of fractions ?"

"Algebraic fractions ?" she asked.

"Fractions of any kind," said I. "Do you know, for instance, why the division of any quantity by a fraction gives a result larger than the dividend ?"

"No," she said, she had never been able to understand that, and although she had gone conscientiously

through the arithmetic to the entire satisfaction of her teachers, she had never felt that she understood the principles involved in the working of fractions.

I took a score of apples, and undertook to teach her in a single lesson what years of schooling had left untaught.

I showed her how every reduction in the size of the divisor increased the result. Going downward gradually, I reached one as the divisor, which gave, of course, just twice as large a result as two had given. Then with a knife I made halves of the apples, and taking one of these in my hand, as a divisor, I was about to continue the explanation, when she fairly clapped her hands for joy. She saw the principle and understood now not only this, but every other fact she had learned concerning fractions, because she now knew practically just what fractions were. She at once adopted the plan with herself, and she has mastered the higher mathematics without a teacher, and almost without a serious difficulty.

I give the incident because it illustrates what I mean, shows the value of object-teaching, and may serve to guide some teacherless student in making use of objects in working out his own lessons.*

The student who thus masters every principle as he goes on will make slow progress, perhaps, at first, but in doing this he is laying a foundation for much more rapid as well as much more satisfactory learning after a little while. As soon as he clearly sees what figures mean,

* Of course nobody will imagine for a moment that I put this plan forward as in any sense new. It is only part of the great system of object-teaching known to every intelligent instructor, but used far less generally than it should be.

and learns to associate them with their meanings, mathematics loses its abstract character, its study becomes an agreeable one, and the relations of numbers to each other become clear, unmistakable facts to his mind, which he has no difficulty in comprehending. And this relation of numbers to each other is all there is of arithmetic.

Let me add one suggestion which I have found of value in a great many cases. There is nothing so good as *concrete* study, and the student of arithmetic should make an exercise out of every combination of numbers he can get outside of his arithmetic. When he reads in a newspaper, for instance, that there were two hundred and fifty-six persons on board a wrecked vessel, of whom twenty-eight were drowned and eight died of exposure, he has an excellent exercise in the calculation of the various percentages involved. And so with a hundred other things. Excellent problems may be made out of the dimensions of every room in the house, out of every planted field, out of everything in fact around the student, and these may be made to involve precisely the principles he most wishes to study, whether they be those of arithmetic or those of the higher mathematics.

They have the advantage too of being real, practical problems, involving tangible facts, and there is no better way of making one's self a perfect master of arithmetic than by the persistent use of these every-day object-lessons with which we are all surrounded. Let the student practice making them for himself, and he will find no lack of material for his purpose.

Under another title in this volume I shall endeavor to show how a somewhat similar process may be made to contribute very largely to the student's progress in

things other than arithmetic, and to enlarge his culture even more rapidly than the regular study of books can do.

We come now to

THE STUDY OF ENGLISH.

As our own language is the vehicle through which we communicate our thoughts to others and receive their ideas in return, of course every American needs to know English thoroughly. Looking at the matter from the lowest plane it is easy enough to see that a mastery of English has a decided pecuniary value to its possessor. In large commercial houses the accomplished English scholar who sits at the correspondent's desk usually receives double the salary paid to the much harder-worked bookkeeper, in spite of the fact that the latter brings to the business the capital of a technical skill. And there are scores of other ways in which a thorough knowledge of one's mother tongue may be made to pay, while its absence is often fatal to success. An ill-spelled letter, an ungrammatical remark—these and similar things have cost many a failure.

The money value of English study is by no means small, but aside from this, there can be no question of the fact that the study of English, properly followed, brings with it nearly, if not quite, as much of intellectual culture as the study of any other language, and with these facts in view, I think there can be no doubt that next to elementary arithmetic there is nothing more important in a common school education than the study of English. And yet it seems singularly neglected. Not one in fifty, even of classically educated men, can write a single

page in perfectly accurate English. This may appear to be an extravagant statement, but I make it after a careful examination of results, and am convinced that it by no means goes beyond the fact. A great many cannot even write in tolerably good English, while the number of people who can spell correctly is so small that I have known more than one person to argue that the ability to spell is "a gift,"—that it comes, as high musical attainments do, only to those who have especial intellectual endowments in that direction. The absurdity of such a theory is too manifest to need demonstration. A memory which receives and retains the ten thousand occurrences of every day life is certainly equal to the task of remembering the order of letters in our constantly used words, particularly as the sound actively aids the memory in this matter, as it does not in ordinary affairs.

THE FAILURE OF THE GRAMMARS.

A thorough and accurate knowledge of English is of very great value to all. But while I think it impossible to attach too much importance to the study of English, I do not regard our grammars, as they are written, as of much use in any case, while to a great many people they are simply stumbling-blocks. Mr. Richard Grant White has shown, and most thinking people had already discovered, that our whole system of conjugating verbs after the manner of the Latin language is an absurdity; that "I might have been loved" is no more a part of the verb "to love" than is any other phrase in which "love" or "loved" occurs. Our language is almost wholly without verbal inflections, and the translation of a Latin verb in its different

moods and tenses into English phrases of the same meaning, certainly does not give moods and tenses in English. Indeed, the grammarians have been singularly inconsistent in this. If the English phrase by which we express the thing that the Romans meant when they used the first person, singular number, subjunctive mood, future perfect tense of the verb "Amo" is properly called, in English, a like inflection of the verb "to love," then the same rule should apply to nouns, adjectives, etc., and we should have the word "man" declined, in English, as follows :

Nominative,	A man.
Genitive,	Of a man.
Dative,	To or for a man.
Accusative,	A man.
Vocative,	O man.
Ablative,	With, from, in, or by a man.

But we have nothing of the sort in any of the grammars. Our grammarians have translated the Latin verbs into English phrases and named these after the inflections of which they have the force, while they wholly omit to do the same thing with the nouns.

This is but one of many absurdities, which this is not the place to point out, and I have only given a single illustration for the sake of suggesting rather than explaining to the reader, my reasons for saying that while I regard the study of English *grammar* as of the utmost importance, I think the study of English *grammars* almost wholly useless in all cases, and actually hurtful in many.

Let it be understood, then, that what the student wants is to study English *grammar* whether he studies

English *grammars* or not. I would have him learn the structure, the philosophy, the origin, and the use of his mother tongue, and I am convinced that there are better ways of doing this than the one ordinarily adopted, in the chewing of dry husks at the bidding of a grammarian who defines an adverb to be "a word which qualifies or limits a verb, adjective, or other adverb," and then proceeds to tell the pupil that the word "yes" is an adverb, in spite of the fact that no sentence can possibly be formed in which this word will in any way qualify or limit anything whatever. The ordinary system of studying English is slow, irksome, and productive of poor results in the great majority of cases. That there is a much better way I am fully convinced, and it is one of the purposes of this chapter to explain to the student what this better way is.

The English grammars very correctly define English grammar to be "the art of speaking and writing the English language correctly," though they proceed to treat of many things in no way embraced in this definition, while they omit many of the essentials to such an art.

HOW TO STUDY GRAMMAR.

Discarding their system and accepting their definition, we find that in order to speak and write the English language correctly, it is necessary to know

1*st.* How to pronounce the words ;

2*nd.* How to spell the words ;

3*rd.* What the words mean ;

4*th.* How to frame them into correct sentences.

PRONUNCIATION.

We learn the correct pronunciation of most words as we learn the words themselves, by hearing others use them. Analogy gives us the sound of many others, and for the rest, errors are corrected and doubts easily solved by reference to the dictionaries.

SPELLING.

It cannot be denied that the orthography of our language is a difficult one. It follows few analogies, it has many redundancies, it is often awkward, and in a general way, there are no principles governing it. Some attempts have been made to frame rules for spelling, but these for the most part are of small value, covering but a meagre list of words, and admitting of many exceptions. There are but two of them that I have found of practical value to anybody. One of these is that monosyllables and words accented on the last syllable, ending in a single consonant, preceded by a single vowel, double the final consonant before an addition beginning with a vowel. It is a long rule, covering a very short list of words. It may enable a student to avoid spelling such words as "beginning," "plotting," "shipping," etc., with a single "n," "t," or "p," but beyond this it is of no service whatever. The other rule to which I refer is that the diphthong "ei" usually follows "c," while its companion, "ie," is generally used after other consonants; for example, in the words "receive," "deceive," "perceive," etc., the "e" takes precedence, while the "i" comes first in such words as "field," "shield," "believe," "relieve," "chief," "thief," etc. This rule serves a good purpose, inasmuch as it

meets a very common difficulty, but there are a good many exceptions to it, and they greatly lessen its value.

As these are the best of the rules given in any of the grammars, and the best that can be given, it will be seen at once that English spelling must be learned to a great extent arbitrarily, but a little industry and attention will enable any student to master it.

To a very great extent we *absorb* a knowledge of spelling in our daily reading. The original process of learning to read is itself a learning to spell, and as we read words correctly spelled in our newspapers and books, we naturally fall into the way of spelling most of them aright. Every person who reads must learn to spell at least half the words in our commonly used vocabulary. This far we are all able to spell, but there is no reason why any student should habitually spell any considerable number of words badly ; no reason, at any rate, except that the system by which spelling is commonly taught is an essentially bad one. Everybody knows what that system is, and everybody knows too how imperfectly it accomplishes its purpose. It is like all other parrot-teaching, in that its results are rapidly lost as soon as the attention is given to something else.

Experience and observation have combined to convince me that no person can be taught to spell, but that any person may learn to spell. In other words, I am convinced that no teacher of spelling is either necessary or useful to persons who can read and write. If the student would learn to spell words, let him use words. Let him write every day, and in writing, whenever he shall come to a word which he does not certainly know how to spell, let him look for it in his dictionary, examining its derivation as well as its spelling. Then let him look also at

all the words derived from it, and when this is done he will never hesitate again as to the orthography of any of them.

To do this as an exercise is easy enough of course, but when one is writing for other purposes he is apt to find it more convenient to ask some one else how to spell the word, or even to guess at it, than to go to his dictionary ; and just here is the common point of failure. A spelling so arbitrary as ours is can only be mastered by industry, and the student who has not industry enough to examine the dictionary for himself in every case, has no right to hope for anything like complete success. I cannot too strongly impress the student with the necessity of holding himself strictly to this rule. It may consume valuable time at first, but the occasions for going to the dictionary will rapidly diminish in frequency under a faithful following of the plan suggested, and the results will fully compensate him for all the trouble taken.

Inattention is a fruitful source of ill spelling. I mean by this not merely that in moments of inattention we are apt to spell incorrectly words that we know how to spell, but also that by inattention the student loses many opportunities of learning the orthography of words for the first time. I can best explain this by a few examples of the simplest kind. I have seen the word "preparation" spelled with an "e" in the second syllable, simply because the writer failed to remember that "preparation" is a derivation of "prepare." Hardly a day passes in which I do not see "separate" or some of its derivatives similarly misspelled by people who know Latin reasonably well, and know that the Latin word from which our "separate" comes is a com-

pound one, made up of "se" and "parare." A very little measure of attention would show them the absolute necessity there is for an "a" in the second syllable, and yet I find an "e" there in eleven out of sixteen instances now before me, all of them taken from the manuscript of educated men, who could give the derivation of the word without a moment's hesitation. These are but two cases cited here by way of illustration. Scores of others might easily be added, but my purpose now is simply to suggest the way in which a little care and attention may be made to serve the student in learning to spell accurately.

LEARNING THE MEANINGS OF WORDS.

In some sort we absorb a knowledge of the meanings of words, but the popular use of words is by no means always a very accurate one, and the nicer distinctions which constitute at once the beauty and the power of language are often wholly lost in our common speech. A good knowledge of these is of the first importance to the student who aspires to become anything like a good English scholar. For the accomplishment of this, methods very similar to those I have indicated for use in learning to spell will be found indispensable. Whenever the student hears, sees or uses a word of which he does not know the full and precise meaning, with its synonyms and their departures from absolute synonymy, he should at once make the word a study, examining his dictionary carefully for all the information there given on the subject, and comparing the word with its synonyms for the sake of learning the peculiarities of each, and the purpose each serves in our speech. The amount and variety of information to

be acquired in this way is very much greater than most students will imagine, and there is no better or more rapid way of learning English than precisely this. But to do this worthily will require a good deal of industry, and it may even cause some inconvenience at times. Indolence and self-indulgence are greatly in the way in this as in all other attempts to learn anything thoroughly.

In thus studying the spelling and the meaning of words, the student will find it an excellent plan to carry a memorandum-book in which to write down, when a dictionary is not at hand, words of which he wishes to make studies.

In the study of meanings, too, a little attention to the forms, kinships, derivations, etc., of the words will be found of quite as great assistance as a similar process is in the matter of spelling. This is especially the case with people who know anything of Latin, Greek, French or Anglo-Saxon, because to such persons a large number of our English words bear their meaning on their faces, if only the student takes care to look for it. But even people who know nothing of any language except their own will find in many words traces of their origin, from which all their nicer shades of meaning are at once apparent. Aside from the time saved by this process when it is applicable, it has the greater merit of supplying a much more thorough and accurate knowledge of the words and their uses that any study of mere definitions can give.

It would seem at the first glance that this habit of analytical attention to the formation of words, would so commend itself to every one as to need no mention here, but I am convinced that the fact is otherwise. I have known many good Latin scholars to habitually

use the word "transpire" as the equivalent of "happen," and certainly no one familiar with Latin could possibly fall into such an error, except with eyes shut to the transparent formation of the word so misused. And the same thing happens every day with hundreds of other words, that express their meaning in the very syllables and letters of which they are composed, and yet are constantly misused by people who ought to know better, and do know better, if they would only trouble themselves to think of the matter.

THE STRUCTURE OF SENTENCES.

Words, taken separately, are of no value. They are but the bricks out of which the building, language, is constructed, and we no sooner begin to learn their meanings than we begin also to learn how to put them together into intelligible sentences. We learn this in a rude way, just as we learn approximate meanings, by absorption from the people around us. As we grow older our reading greatly increases our information on this subject, at the same time correcting many of the errors adopted from oral speech. But to learn the genius of the language, to master its idiom, to comprehend its principles, and to acquire so thorough a mastery over it as to make it a soft clay in our hands which we can mould as we will to our uses, are ends that can be accomplished only by long and earnest work.

Let us look a little into the processes. In the grammars we have the dry husks of syntax, simple enough, and even tolerably interesting to people who have already learned all that these are intended to teach, but quite useless and almost wholly unintelligible to the student seeking to learn these things. The grammars

tell of moods and tenses, with names that are anything but indicative to the boys and girls who are expected to use them. Then follow "rules," varying in number according to the fancy of the grammarian—rules like those in the arithmetics, that are simply statements of facts, that teach no principles, and are of no manner of use, except in the solution of the syntactical problems arrayed under them as exercises. Doubtless some people have learned English from these grammars, but in the main their use is certainly of questionable advantage. Dull pupils cannot comprehend them; bright ones get on better, in the study of English, without them.

There is no better way of learning the structure of any complicated thing than by taking it to pieces and putting it together again, and there is no better way of learning the English language, certainly. Indeed, the writers of the ordinary grammars recognize this fact, and their whole effort is to instruct and practice the student in doing just this. But I think with Mr. White, and a good many other lovers of idiomatic English, that our grammarians have been misled by the old scholastic influences into an attempt to make our speech conform to the Latin, and so have built upon it an unphilosophical system of inflections, and encumbered it with a set of rules that have no root in the nature of the language itself. The limitations of this manual would not admit of the discussion of this subject here, even if the view I take had not been already ably maintained by the author to whose work I have referred.

But while I do not think any ordinary grammar necessary or very useful to the student who has no master, there are text-books on English gram-

mar which will aid him greatly in his study of the language. Such a book as Greene's Analysis, for instance, in which parts of speech, and conjugations and rules of syntax, and all the cumbrous technicalities of grammars are wholly done away with, while the author leads the student step by step from the simplest to the most complex of sentences, analyzing them and showing the student the nature and office of every part, will be found invaluable. There are several text-books of the sort, in which the English language is treated philosophically and rationally, with but few technicalities; but the one named is one of the best for the self-teaching student, in that it is one of the simplest.

But just here it is well to remind the reader that the book, even if it shall be thoroughly mastered, will not teach him English. As he studies its pages he should form the habit of going outside of them and questioning the sentences he reads elsewhere for confirmation and illustration of the text. He should make exercises every day of the books or papers within his reach, and of the remarks made in his presence. This will serve not only to fasten in his mind the principles laid down in the text, but also to show him the departures from them that are common in conversation, and he will soon learn to know which of these are errors to be avoided at all times, and which are simply conversational idioms, admissible as such, but not authorized for other purposes.

HIGHER ENGLISH.

From the Analysis, and from this daily application of its teachings, the student will learn the laws governing the language.

Having faithfully followed the system of study indi-

cated, he will now have learned how to pronounce the words; how to spell the words; what the words mean · and how to put them together into sentences. In other words he will know how to speak and write the English language correctly. He will have learned the grammar of our tongue.

But many people can speak and write the language correctly who cannot speak or write it well. Many people who never use an incorrect sentence, never frame a graceful one. Correct English may be, and often is very stiff English, and the student who has gone this far is by no means master of the language as yet. He has still to learn how to write and speak in graceful sentences, and how to handle the tongue deftly, as an infinitely flexible instrument, completely under his control.

Such a mastery over English is acquired, of course, by very few people, comparatively, but the end is one so worthy that the student should spare no effort to accomplish it as fully as possible, and every approach to it is a step in the direction of ripe scholarship of the very best sort.

The means that have been employed to this end are various, and almost every student will be able to add to my suggestions many valuable exercises of his own. Indeed these self-devised lessons are often the very best ones possible for the student, inasmuch as they commonly spring from a known and felt necessity of his own, and therefore supply the wants of his peculiar temperament and circumstances much more directly than any exercise suggested by others can possibly do. I shall confine myself therefore to the recommendation of plans which I have known to work well, urging the

student to vary them whenever he finds that a change will better adapt them to his own particular case.

An approved text-book on English composition will supply a good deal of needed information, while it will furnish also the rules governing good English speech, and guide the student in the correction of inelegances of phrase. (Dr. John S. Hart's very admirable series of text-books are probably the best, especially for self-instructed students.) No text-book on the subject aims to do more than this, and indeed none can do more. The rest must be learned from extensive reading, or by means of exercises, and these, as I have said, may be varied almost at will. The one most commonly employed in the schools is composition-writing, and this, with a competent teacher as critic, is ordinarily found to be extremely valuable.

Even without criticism the practice of telling things in writing will bring with it a certain degree of fluency and ease in the use of language, and every student of English should write something every day. If the thing that he writes shall prove not to be a composition, in the school-room sense of the term, it will be so much the better, simply because in real life people talk very little about abstract matters, while it is only the thoroughly earnest and thoroughly practical teacher who succeeds in making his composition-writers treat of anything else.

Let the student who would master English, then, write something every day. If he simply tells a homely anecdote, or relates the incidents of the day, or gives an account of something he has seen, to an imaginary circle of readers, or if he writes down what he has thought upon any subject, the result will probably be

worth nothing in a literary way, but its writer will have had an excellent lesson in English.

There is another admirable exercise, closely akin to this. It was technically known in the High School where it originated as "narration;" certain pupils were named, each day, as the narrators for the following day, and each was required to take the rostrum and tell something to the school. They were allowed to tell anything they chose, but always in their own words, and the rapidity with which the pupils improved in their manner of saying what they had to say, not only on the rostrum but equally in other places, was very marked. The student without a school may quietly exercise himself in a similar way in the company of his fellows without letting anybody into his secret. An audience is an audience, whether its members are aware of the fact or not.

Another excellent plan is to take sentences from books, or elsewhere, and practice expressing their ideas in a variety of other forms. It is best to take single sentences at first, and to see in how many ways you can express the same ideas, using the same words or others as convenience may dictate. Then take two or three sentences on a single subject and repeat the process, practicing also the expression of the ideas contained in your two or three sentences, in a single, compound, or complex sentence. Reversing the process, take a long compound or complex sentence, and break it up into a number of simple ones, fully expressing the same idea.

This much may be done mentally, when the materials for writing are not at hand, when the student is at work, or when he is walking, or riding, or doing any-

thing else that does not require his constant attention, in pursuance of the habit of thought-education suggested elsewhere in this volume.

When you shall have acquired a good degree of facility in this exercise, a somewhat more elaborate application of the principle will be found of very great advantage. Read a very short article of any kind, and then turning away from it write down its substance in your own way, or still better, in three or four different ways, taking care to preserve the precise meaning of the original, and to omit nothing. At first this will be done awkwardly, but after a little practice you will find it easy to say the same thing in half a dozen different ways, and when you can do this the flexibility of the language in your hands will be greatly increased. When you shall find this to be the case, follow the plan with longer articles, taking care all the time not to make use of awkward, confused, or very complex sentences. Remember that of two ways of expressing precisely the same thing, the simpler one is always the better.

Just here, let me give a word of caution. If the student has read any of the books upon English composition, he is in danger of falling into troublesome errors by too strict an adherence to the rules they lay down. Let him bear in mind, constantly, that these rules are only general ones, and are not applicable in every case. They are framed, for the most part, for the correction of those errors into which very young writers commonly fall, and while they are necessary for this purpose, even their authors do not intend that they should have a wider application than this.

Let me illustrate this. One of these rules is to the

effect that tautological expressions are bad, and in a general way this is very true ; but there are cases in which the frequent repetition of the same word or the same idea greatly adds to the force of writing, and a strict application of the rule in such cases as these, is of course not intended. Again, there is a very simple rule, that where several substantives are coupled toge ther, either as the subject or the object of the verb, the conjunction "and" or "or" must be used only between the last two. For example, "Men, women, children, horses and dogs, joined in the chase," is better than "Men and women and children" etc., and ordinarily the rule holds good in this way. There are times, however, when it is better to write all the conjunctions, and our very best writers frequently do so.

To decide when it is better to adhere to these and similar rules, and when it is better to depart from them, is the office of taste, and good taste in literary matters comes only from careful culture. I can give the student no clue to the problem—no formula by which he can solve it, but I have given this caution in order that the reader who begins with a proper respect for rule may also cultivate, from the first, a reasonable independence of rule, in order that the guides given him in his text-books may not become his prison-keepers, as they are very apt to do with students who have no other masters. What I would press upon him is briefly this, that the rules given him in the text-books on composition and rhetoric are in the main correct, but that not one of them is applicable always and everywhere. In avoiding the errors they are designed to correct, beware of falling into errors of an opposite kind. Let your taste and your judgment be

educated by these rules, but never allow either to be arbitrarily controlled by them. Apply the rules when they are applicable, but hold yourself free to depart from their strict letter whenever it carries a meaning contrary to their spirit. They are meant to be guide-boards, and not impassable barriers to the student. He should catch their spirit, taking care to ascertain just what they are intended to teach, and just what errors they are designed to prevent, keeping constantly in mind the fact that except in the matter of grammatical accuracy, there can be no rule of universal application on the subject of English composition. I have found no greater stumbling-block in the way of self-teaching students than the habit of blindly following rules that were never meant to be so followed.

There is another exercise in English composition which helps to give the student freedom in the use of language, while its practice teaches him something else at the same time. It is to read brief editorial comments on current events, and to write something quite different upon the same subjects and from the same facts. This is what is known in newspaper offices as paragraphing, and every editor knows how very few people do it thoroughly well. While it forms an excellent exercise in the use of English, it serves at the same time to sharpen the wits and to cultivate a habit of independent thinking which is absolutely essential to all profitable reading. The man who reads books as gospels, accepting their statements of fact and their conclusions as necessarily true, becomes the mere creature of his books, and his ideas are but reflections, and often faint ones at that, of other people's thoughts. He has his opinions at second-hand, and they are worth little

to himself and still less to anybody else. His mind is a lumber-room. He has succeeded in getting some learning, perhaps, but it has brought with it no culture. Against a habit with tendencies of this kind we cannot take too many precautions, and the exercise just suggested furnishes a most admirable training in habits of reading the very opposite of the unfortunately common one to which I refer.

But as a means of culture in English, the constant reading of good authors is more effective than anything else, and upon that, chiefly, the student must depend for excellence in this as in a good many other departments of learning and culture.

A rather remarkable case, illustrating the effectiveness of reading as a teacher of English, was that of George Northrup, the trapper. His education was extremely limited ; his opportunities for intercourse with men of culture were very few, and his habits of life as a trapper were certainly not of a kind to supply educational defects. But he was a constant reader of De Quincey, Irving, and Bancroft, and when he wrote newspaper letters from the Indian wars, the purity and grace of his literary style were the wonder of everybody who knew the history of the man.

CHAPTER III.

COLLEGIATE STUDIES.

WHAT TO STUDY.

In planning this volume I have had the one purpose of making it as generally useful as possible, constantly in view. To this end I make my chapters and other subdivisions with reference rather to the convenience of students than to any strictly philosophical system of classification. I have called the branches already treated, Common School Studies, not because they are fully taught in the average common school, but because they ought to be. In like manner I include under the title "Collegiate Studies" all that we learn of languages, the higher mathematics, and experimental science, although the rudiments of all these are commonly learned before matriculation. This manual is intended chiefly for students who have not the advantages of regular instruction, and very many of these are forced by circumstances to content themselves with the bare necessaries of education. For such the course already marked out is especially designed. It embraces nothing that the commonest education should not include, while it excludes everything else. Having gone thus far in the work of self-culture, the student will now be

called upon to decide how much more of regular study he will undertake, and the old questions, "what shall I study?" and "how shall I study it?" will come up again for decision.

In this case, as in the former one, the decision of the question, "What shall I study?" will depend largely upon the student's age, circumstances and purposes. Again he is reminded that in all knowledge there is profit, but that all knowledge is not equally profitable. Again he must remember that there is no limit to profitable education; that the ideal education is a complete storing of the mind with information, and a complete development of all the faculties; that the true purpose of education is the preparation of the man for his most perfect work.

Study is the means by which education is secured, and study has a twofold purpose. Whether we study books, men or things, we are constantly accomplishing a double end and receiving a double benefit; we are acquiring information and we are developing and disciplining our faculties. In deciding between two courses of study, which to select, the student must take into the account the value of the information each will give and the value of the culture each will bring. And these values, as I have before said, vary according to the circumstances and purposes of the student. Some kinds of information and some kinds of culture have a special value in certain businesses, which other culture and other information, equally good in themselves, have not. In other words, the man should be moulded to his work in life as perfectly as possible. The more complete his education can be made the better, but if it must be a partial one,

then it should embrace the parts that best supply his wants. I can only indicate the nature of each branch of study, leaving the student to decide which will best serve his purpose, reminding him, however, that he needs them all, and advising him to make the list of his selections as large as his circumstances will allow.

THE SCIENTISTS AND THE CLASSICISTS.

The student who has pushed his education to this point, cannot have failed to discover that there are two opposing schools of educational theorists, differing widely in opinion as to the comparative merits of the two curriculi—the classical and the scientific as they are called. The more conservative school holds that the study of languages brings with it an intellectual culture which nothing else can supply. Their opponents argue that there is nothing, or at any rate very little of practical use, learned from Latin and Greek, and that scientific studies furnish as much mental discipline as the classics do, while their teachings are eminently practical, after the modern acceptation of the term. The classicists accuse the scientists of measuring the value of culture by a sordid utilitarian standard, and the scientists retort by crying "cant," and insisting that the old system of "Latin and Logic" is a musty relic of a less practical age than this.

Between these two it is neither the province nor the purpose of this volume to decide. Probably both are partly right and both partly wrong. The utilitarian character of a scientific education is certainly a point in its favor, but there seems to be quite as much of cant employed in its advocacy as in that of the older system. On the other hand, I am not of those who

think lightly of the classics. The culture obtained in study of the languages, whether dead or alive, is of a kind which nothing else can claim to give, while the practical use of such study, even if we confine it to the dead tongues, and measure its value by the strictest of utilitarian rules, is by no means small.

Aside from other considerations, there is no better or surer way of learning English thoroughly than by learning other languages. The kinship of all the Indo-European tongues is so close that we cannot add an acquaintance with any one of them without greatly increasing and improving our knowledge of those we may have learned already; and in addition to this there can be no question of the fact that the act of translating from any one tongue into any other, is the very best possible exercise for developing that fluency, and freedom, and flexibility in the use of our own language which we all admit are of so much value.

In the exercises given in a former chapter, for the student's use, I have purposely omitted this one of translation, because it seemed out of place there, inasmuch as a large majority of those for whose benefit that chapter was written know no language but their own, and many of them, perhaps, will study no other. Some of those exercises, however, are one in principle with translation, and the processes are, in fact, translations from one kind of English into another. These have been made so for the purpose of supplying to the student of English, as far as possible, the advantages which only the student of other languages can fully enjoy, and the man who would master English, if he cannot study other languages thoroughly, cannot do a bet-

ter thing than to learn something of other tongues, even if it be but the "little Latin and less Greek" attributed to Shakespeare. The very fact that to learn anything of these he must translate their idiom into our own, is quite enough to justify the recommendation.

I need not dwell upon the advantages of scientific studies. The student will hear these extolled on all hands, and with excellent reason. The sciences deal with the practical concerns of to-day. Their teachings are all of the largest usefulness. Their study equips the student, as nothing else can, for an active, useful, earnest, and profitable life, and anything like a mastery even of any one scientific specialty brings with it a good degree of culture, though the culture is of a somewhat narrow sort in most instances. Indeed, the chief danger incident to scientific pursuits lies in the growing tendency of scientists to follow specialties, to the exclusion of everything else. Humboldt took "all knowledge for his province," but in our day no man can hope to be great in the whole even of any one science. Your botanist, who wishes to be something more than an amateur, confines himself chiefly to some one class of flora. One astronomer studies asteroids, and another makes comets his specialty, until even the fixed stars become, in his view, affairs of minor importance; while the entomologist thinks meanly of any glass that has a greater range than that of his microscope.

There is so much in science—so much in each separate science—that no one man can grasp it all with a master hand, and as a consequence the tendency is more and more strongly toward specialties. All this, of course, is for the good of science, but it must greatly narrow the

men. It is a departure, of the most marked character, from the ideal education—the education which enlarges and develops all the faculties into their fullest and most healthful activity, giving each its full share of culture, and subordinating each to the perfectly balanced whole. It is well for the world that we have specialists, but the pushing of one's whole being into a specialty, while it may ensure good results in that one direction, is not, by any means, the highest or best form of education.

The advantages of mathematical study are manifest. Aside from the practical daily uses of mathematics in every workshop and every office, the study of pure or applied mathematics supplies a kind of intellectual training which can be secured in no other way. The accuracy of conception and statement required, the mastery of principles, the solution of problems—all these develop habits of mind of the most healthful and useful kind. There is hardly any business in which the processes of mathematics are not in constant use, and there can be no position in life in which the mental discipline that comes of mathematical study is valueless.

THE QUESTION TO BE DECIDED.

The student who has completed his common school studies will in almost every case feel called upon to decide what he will select from the seemingly endless list presented by the advocates of the classical and the scientific courses. On the one hand there are a score of separate sciences, almost any one of which is too vast for his complete mastery, and on the other a list of

languages still larger. From which shall he select, and how much of either may he safely undertake?

Again, he must decide for himself, having in mind his own special circumstances, the time at his command, his wants in the way of information, and his wants in the way of culture. A careful reading of this chapter will inform him as to the nature of the several branches, and their respective degrees of special adaptation to his purposes, but he should never for a moment lose sight of the fact that the more general and catholic his education can be made, the nearer it will approach to the perfect standard of complete and well balanced culture. If his time is limited, and his business or other circumstances create a special want, let him supply that first, by all means. Otherwise let him beware of the narrowness of specialties. Except in such individual cases as the one named, the best course is one embracing something of the languages, something of the experimental sciences, and something of mathematics—and the more of each the better.*

* I speak here only of text-book study. The subject of general literature will be treated under another head.

CHAPTER IV.

THE STUDY OF LANGUAGES.

Having determined to study one or more foreign tongues, the student will almost certainly find himself puzzled to decide what ones they shall be. I cannot tell him, nor can any one else lay down a general rule in such cases. Perhaps I can help the reader, however, to solve the difficulty for himself.

THE COMPARATIVE VALUES OF LANGUAGES.

The Greek and Latin commonly take precedence of modern languages, in systematic curriculi, for the reason that they are much more difficult in some regards, and are therefore supposed to furnish a larger share of mental discipline than any two spoken European languages. Again, our literature, and that of all Europe, is so closely allied to the classics of Greece and Rome as to give special value to the study of those tongues. On the other hand, a knowledge of almost any modern speech is of much greater practical usefulness than a knowledge of Greek or Latin, and the current of opinion seems to be setting strongly in favor of modern languages, in this utilitarian age.

Of the modern languages, French is the most generally useful, perhaps, to people who may have occasion to

travel, inasmuch as it is not only the language of diplomacy, but also the one speech in which the traveller can make himself understood almost anywhere in Europe. The French literature, too, is one of the finest in the world.

The German, while it is spoken less commonly out of Germany, is the native tongue of a very large part of Europe. It is so closely akin to the Saxon part of our own language as to have a peculiar value to English-speaking people. And, moreover, there are so many Germans in our own country that a knowledge of their language has a practical value to Americans which no other has.

These are the two modern languages most commonly studied by Americans, for the reason that while their respective literatures are of the very highest order, they have a greater practical value to us than other European tongues. In point of kinship with English the Germanic family of languages (German, Dutch, Scandinavian, etc.) are nearer on one side, and the Latin group (French, Italian, Spanish, Portuguese, etc.) on the other. Most of our shorter, commoner conversational words come to us from the Germanic side, while from the Latin we have the words of nice distinction and more ornate speech. From the one we get the strength and from the other the polish of our tongue. The requirements of the student in one or the other of these regards may influence his choice to some extent, where other considerations are equal.

THE COMPARATIVE DIFFICULTY OF LEARNING THEM.

Another point is the comparative ease or difficulty with which different languages may be learned. To a

student who knows nothing but English, the difference in this respect, between the leading languages of the two families, is hardly appreciable. The Dutch closely resembles English in some respects, and the Frisic dialect is so like our own language that travellers have sometimes mistaken it for corrupt English. This is not the case however with the German. We have a good many words in common with that language, but the resemblance is not much stronger than that between English and the Latin tongues, so that the student who knows no language but English will find one about as difficult as the other. With one who knows Latin, however, even partially, the case is very different. To such a person the French and the Italian are much easier than the German, while the Spanish and Portuguese are easier even than these. Indeed, the Spanish is so similar to the Latin that no Latin scholar need trouble himself very much to learn to read it.

If the student knows Latin, then, or any one of the Latin tongues, he will find far less difficulty in learning any other language of that family than in mastering a Germanic speech. If he knows any two of these languages, his study of the others will be still easier.

I suggest all these things merely that the student may have before him all the facts bearing upon the question of what languages he will undertake, and may make his decision wisely.

HOW TO STUDY LANGUAGES.

Languages are studied in a great variety of ways, many of them convenient and many exceedingly awkward. The old system, still in use in too many schools, is to begin with a grammar, study it from beginning to

end, and then, with the aid of a lexicon, to translate one book after another from the language in hand into English. The Germans, who have done more than any other people to develop rational systems of teaching, were the originators of the first improvements on this old, slow and unsatisfactory mode of studying languages, and to them we really owe all that we have of improved methods in the matter. Their first marked advance was the introduction of what is usually called prose composition—which consists of a series of graduated exercises in translation—from the foreign into the mother tongue, and conversely from the native into the foreign language. The advantages of this plan of graduated double translations over the old system are so manifest that the principle involved has found a place in almost every one of the later methods, most of which have grown out of it more or less directly.

THE GROUP SYSTEM.

Dr. Beard, in his work on self-culture, predicts that the discoveries made by the comparative philologists will revolutionize our system of learning languages. He thinks the best way to become familiar with different tongues is to study them collectively, and suggests that the student first take up Sanscrit, as the head of the Indo-European family, and learn at least those of its roots which have been preserved in the tongues that have come after it, and then proceed to learn the comparative grammar of the several languages composing one of the groups of which the great Indo-European family is composed.

However admirable this plan may be for men who intend to make comparative philologists of themselves, it

will hardly become, as Dr Beard thinks, the common mode of studying languages, and it certainly has little practical value to the class of students for whom I write. I refer to it here only because it contains the germ of a suggestion which may be of advantage to the student, and that is that if he intends to study more than one language, he will get on faster by studying them in groups, not necessarily beginning with Latin when he means to study that and the tongues which have come from it, but studying all the Latin languages he intends to master, one after the other, deferring those of any other group until after he shall have completed his studies in those of the group first undertaken. In this way one language will become a key to another, and the student's progress will be greatly facilitated.

Ordinarily, however, the number of tongues studied is not sufficient to make this of any practical use, and it will better serve the purposes of this volume to tell the student just how to learn any one language. Several improved plans for doing this have been devised of late years, all of them based upon the German system already referred to, though in them all that system is greatly elaborated and improved.

M. MARCEL'S SYSTEM.

The best of these, in my judgment, is that given in a little book now out of print,* of which I shall endeavor to give the spirit here. In the book itself the reasons for every process and every exercise are given in full, a thing manifestly impossible here, even if it were desira-

* The Study of Languages brought back to its True Principles; or the Art of Thinking in a Foreign Language, by C. Marcel, Knt. Leg. Hon., etc., etc.

ble. The student needs only to know what the system is, and that it has proved one of the very best in actual practice. With this general acknowledgment let me give the system of M. Marcel, with one or two unimportant modifications, as briefly as possible.

In learning a language there are four distinct things to be learned. These are—

1. To read the written tongue ;
2. To understand the spoken tongue ;
3. To speak the language ;
4. To write the language.

And these should be learned in the order in which they are here set down, so that one may serve as a key to another. Not that one of these should be, or can be wholly mastered before the next is begun, but this is the order in which they should be taken up. In learning a dead language, the first and last of these are all that it is necessary to know, because the pronunciation of the dead languages is uncertain at best, and as nobody speaks them we have no occasion to learn a questionable pronunciation, which when learned is of no use whatever.

Beyond the quantitive rules of pronunciation therefore there is little to be learned in this respect in the study of dead languages, and the same thing is true also of modern languages, when the student studies them solely with a view to the reading of their literature, and has no purpose to speak or to understand them when spoken.

HOW TO LEARN TO READ A LANGUAGE.

The ordinary way of learning to read a language is by the constant use of the grammar and the dictionary.

In the method now under consideration both of these are dispensed with almost wholly. We not only do not find it necessary to learn the rules of English syntax before learning to read English, but practically we learn those rules chiefly from our reading, precisely as the grammarians who have written them down for us learned them in the first instance. A language is not made from its syntax, but the syntax is deduced from the language—it is merely a statement of the facts of usage, and is in no way the author of that usage. Accordingly, to learn the rules of syntax which come from the language, before learning the language, is wholly unnatural and irrational. The child learns how to put words together before he learns anything of the syntactical rules involved. He learns to use his mother tongue from the example of others, and not from any rules of syntax, and it is precisely in this way that the student should proceed in learning any other language. He should learn first the usage of the people who write and speak it, and from this he will learn the rules practically without the aid of any grammar.

And the same is true of verbal meanings. Dictionaries only give the translation of words—their equivalents in English—not their meaning in all its fullness, which can only be learned from their use by the people to whom they are natives.

The student cannot learn the grammar of a language or the meaning of its words at all adequately except from the language itself, and to attempt to learn these as a step preparatory to the study of the language is simply an attempt to subvert the order of nature and to accomplish an impossibility.

There are certain things, however, that may be

learned from the grammars and dictionaries as a preparation for reading, and the learning of these constitutes the first step in the study of the language. Let me explain what these are, and briefly state the reasons for learning them and only them. There are two classes of words of which every language is almost wholly composed. The first of these consists of verbs, adjectives and substantives, out of which, chiefly, all sentences are formed. The other class consists of articles, pronouns, prepositions, conjunctions and adverbs, which are used to connect the others or to modify their meaning.

The import of words of the first class varies largely in practice, so that it can only be adequately learned from their use, while words of the other class have ordinarily but a single signification, which may be readily learned; and moreover, as a rule they have few if any variations of form in composition.

These words of the second class should be so far learned in advance that the student will know them by sight when he shall meet them in reading. There are less than four hundred of them in common use in each European language, and their limited number, together with their usually uninflected character, makes it easy to learn their forms and meanings so that when they are met they will give no trouble.

With words of the first class, however, no attempt should be made to do anything of the kind, but the conjugations and declensions should be mastered, so that the various forms of inflected words may be readily recognized. This much may be learned from any grammar, and this constitutes the whole of the first step in learning to read a language.

The pupil should next begin to translate the foreign tongue into his own language, without the use of dictionary or grammar. When he knows the inflections of the verbs, etc., and can recognize most of the words of the second class, he will have no difficulty in translating any plain text into English, with the help of a strict translation, and for this purpose it is best at first to use text-books in which the English and the foreign text are printed in parallel columns, or on directly opposite pages.

Books of this kind may be had for nearly all the modern languages usually studied in this country; but when they cannot be secured, the next best thing is a translation in a separate volume. Interlinear translations are very perplexing, and are bad for several other reasons.

The books used should be as interesting as possible in their matter, and stories or other works in narrative style are much the best. Poetry should be avoided entirely at this stage of the learner's progress, because it is difficult, and because its syntactical structure is not in accordance with the common usage of the tongue.

The student now proceeds to translate the foreign language into English, referring to his printed translation for assistance, for confirmation in cases of doubt, and for the correction of errors. In the text he has the language in actual use, written by an author to whom it is a mother tongue, and consequently, showing all the usages and idioms of the language much more fully and much more practically than can be done in any ordinary text-book.

What he wants is to learn French, or German, or Spanish just as Frenchmen, Germans or Spaniards

really use it, and this is best learned from a study of it as they habitually employ it. He wants no grammatical disquisition on the subject, and no dictionary translations of words.

He needs to read as much as possible of the lan guage he is studying, and by thus reading it he finds out practically what are the usages of the language and what the real force and meaning of each word is, and this is just what the grammars and the dictionaries theoretically teach, but what they can never teach thoroughly and practically.

But just here it is necessary to remind the student that translating a book from a foreign language into English is not reading the foreign language by any means. There is much that is untranslatable in every language. The full force of an author's meaning can never be felt except by those who read his work in the original—that is to say by those who have so far mastered the language in which he writes, that his words and sentences directly convey his meaning, without their mental translation into English.

We never know a language, we can never really read a language, until we can think in it, without mentally substituting the native for the foreign idiom, or *vice versa.*

I mention this here, because it should be the constant aim of the student, as he translates, to acquire the power of understanding the text without translating it. This power comes only with effort, and the effort should be a constant one, beginning almost as soon as the student begins to translate.

His first success in this direction will be in the way of isolated, idiomatic expressions, which cannot be ex-

accurately translated. Of these he will soon catch the spirit and meaning, at first partially and imperfectly, after awhile in all their fullness. Let him seize every such opportunity, and when once an expression carries its meaning to his mind directly, let him always after avoid the translation of that or similar expressions.

His stock of such will grow much more rapidly than he thinks, and each new acquisition will aid him in securing others.

Here is another advantage which this system has over the old one. Grammars and dictionaries teach men to translate only; by this system we learn to read in the original.

No grammar can tell the student what an idiomatic expression means. It can only tell him what is the English idiom most nearly corresponding with it.

Children learn their own language by precisely this method. No parent lectures his child upon the relations of substantive and verb, before teaching him how to put them together in a sentence. We learn our mother tongue in sentences, and not in words. Even before the child can pronounce at all, he learns to understand what his mother means when she says things to him.

His knowledge of whole sentences precedes his knowledge of words. He can talk and read for many years before he knows anything of syntax, and if he heard nothing but pure, correct English from the first he would use nothing else.

Now it is precisely this system which we should follow in learning any foreign language. We should learn not the definitions of isolated words, and the rules of syntax regarding them, but the meaning of the senten-

ces as they are framed by the people whose language we are studying, and thus learn the language itself. After we shall have done this thoroughly, it will be time enough to take up the grammar, if we shall then care to do it.

Let the student begin then by translating some interesting work, substituting actual reading for translation wherever it is possible, and becoming familiar with the usages of the language as rapidly as he can. He will find a second reading of all the passages of very great advantage in this direction, or still better, if he can get for his first reading-book, something with which he is already familar in English—the New Testament, for instance—he will much more rapidly gain a clear insight into the untranslatable force of the idiom, and acquire much sooner than he otherwise would, the power to think in the language he is learning.

At this stage of the learner's progress, if the language he is studying be a living one, he should make no attempt to pronounce it. The power of understanding the spoken tongue, as will be seen later, must come before that of pronouncing it, and any attempts at pronunciation made before this power of understanding is acquired, will only cultivate and fix bad habits upon the organs of speech employed, and debauch the ear so as to interfere seriously with the ultimate acquisition of a good pronunciation.

At present the student should avoid pronunciation altogether, if possible, letting his eye alone know the words, without attaching to them any idea of sound whatever.

Many people find it impossible to do this, but they may at least avoid the actual pronouncing of the words

so that their bad pronunciation may be mental only, and not fix itself upon the organs of speech.

M. Marcel thinks it would be better for the student who must attach some idea of sound to the printed words, to let that idea be precisely what it would be were the same combinations of letters to occur in English, so that when he shall come to learn the pronunciation correctly, he may not be embarrassed by the necessity of correcting approximate but erroneous ideas previously conceived.

The student should continue his translating as rapidly as practicable. What he wants is to become familiar with the words and phrases of the language in actual use, and the more he reads the oftener will each of these present itself.

Repetition is the mother of memory, in the matter of language. The student learns and remembers the exact force of an expression only from its repeated appearance in the text, and the more pages he shall read, the more frequently each word and phrase will occur, and the more he will learn of the language.

At first, of course, he will find a few words whose meaning he cannot discern even by the light of his English translation. For these, and for these only he should consult his dictionary, remembering that it is better always to learn the meaning of a word from its use, when that is possible, than from the verbal translation of a dictionary. For a while it will be necessary to go over every passage two or three times, in order that its full meaning may become clear, and its phrases be fixed in the memory. After a while this will cease to be necessary.

As the student goes on he will rapidly learn the

meanings and the uses of words and of idiomatic expressions. As this knowledge comes to him he must gradually become independent of his English translation, and learn to rely upon his own increasing knowledge of the language. Beginning with the two texts in parallel columns, his second or third book should be wholly in the original, and his translation in a separate volume, so that he may only refer to it as occasion shall require.

When he can dispense with the translation except for very difficult sentences, it will be well to use books with marginal or foot-notes in which the very difficult passages only are rendered, and to substitute for his French-English or German-English dictionary, as the case may be, one written wholly in the language he is learning, in which definitions in that language take the place of translations into English.

But it cannot be too strongly impressed upon the student that we learn the true, exact and perfect meanings of words only by induction after seeing them used in a variety of ways. We may commit definitions to memory, but we get at the true meaning of words only from their actual use. This is true to a great extent of our own language, and still more largely of a foreign one. When we first meet a word in a sentence we gain an imperfect idea of its meaning, or we learn one side of its meaning. When it occurs in other relations we grasp it more perfectly, and after we have seen it used a number of times we learn it in all its fullness, and henceforth know all its purpose and power.

This inductive process is the basis of the system now under consideration, and to cultivate the habit of induction the learner must work out for himself the

meaning of each word in his text, as far as possible without having recourse to his dictionary.

When the student finds translating without the use of a printed translation thoroughly easy, which is to say, when he shall have learned the use and meaning of most of the words and phrases of the language in hand so that he can readily render the text into its English equivalent, he should set himself earnestly to the work of learning to read in that language without translating it at all, as before explained.

If he has taken care to practice this with single phrases as he has gone on, the purpose will now be much more easily accomplished than it otherwise would have been. He should begin it with the book last translated, because his familarity with the text will greatly facilitate his work. At first he will find it a little difficult, perhaps, to grasp the meaning from the text without the mental act of translation, but a very little practice will enable him to do this, and by constantly reading in this way, he will gradually learn to think in the language, so that he can mentally or in writing frame his thoughts into the forms of the tongue he is learning without first conceiving them in English.

When he can do this readily, he will be able to appreciate the literature of that language, and to read it with a full measure of profit, which he never can do so long as he mentally translates it into his own native idiom.

THE TIME NECESSARY.

With a vast number of students this is all that is wanted of foreign languages. They wish to read and

profit by the literature of other nations, and have no especial need or desire to know the spoken tongue. They stop when their purpose is accomplished, and if this be the limit of their purpose, they will naturally want to know how long it will take them to reach it.

To such a question no answer of universal application can be given. The time will vary considerably by reason of differences of mental habit and differing degrees of application and of daily leisure. But a reasonably apt pupil, who can give two or three hours a day to his work, and who works earnestly, should be able to master this much of any modern European language within six months.

M. Marcel thinks that length of time should suffice for this and considerably more, but his estimate is probably based upon his own experience when he gave his whole time and attention to the matter in hand, which few students of course can do.

The dead languages are learned somewhat less rapidly than the spoken ones, but they may be learned, as this much of modern languages may, without any assistance from teachers. Here, as everywhere else, a competent teacher will greatly assist the student, of course, but this much of language the student, with or without a teacher, must really learn for himself, and there is no reason why the want of an instructor should deter any earnest student from undertaking to so far master a language as to read it, to write it, and to think in it.

LEARNING TO UNDERSTAND THE SPOKEN TONGUE.

Every young child hears the conversations around it, and after a while it begins to understand what is said.

At first every spoken sentence falls on its ear in a confused jumble of sound, which not only means nothing, but is so confused that the child cannot even separate the words from each other, or determine just what sounds are really uttered. Little by little, however, as the same sounds are repeated again and again in its presence, it begins to distinguish them from each other with a constantly increasing accuracy, until it learns at last what certain sets of these sounds mean. *After* this comes its first effort to pronounce the words it has heard.

The order of the process is understanding first, speaking afterwards, and it is precisely in this order that we should put them in learning any foreign tongue. Our organs of speech are exactly like those of Frenchmen, or Germans, or Spaniards, and there is no word in their languages which we may not learn to pronounce quite as well as they. But the difference in the pronunciation of a native and a foreigner in any language, lies chiefly in the niceties of sound, and it arises almost wholly from the fact that the foreign ear has not been educated into the power of distinguishing these niceties of sound in a language other than its own.

At first every foreign language is a confused jumble to our ears, just as all language is to the child, and we must learn to hear it understandingly, just as the child learns to hear his mother tongue. When French is spoken in our presence, if we know no French, it is impossible for us to separate the words from each other, and more than this, we cannot accurately repeat after the speakers the shortest of phrases, giving the sounds as they give them.

To our ears our imitation is exact, but to the Frenchman it is painfully wide of the mark. I once knew a French gentleman who said that he lived in this country and spoke English for ten years before he was able to discover the slightest difference in sound between the words "tree" and "three," even when they were uttered with the utmost care for the purpose of making the distinction clear to him. In other words, it took ten years of culture to enable his ear to discover a difference of sound so marked as this.

This much by way of illustration on a point which cannot be too strongly insisted upon, though it is one which both teachers and pupils often overlook,—to wit that the education of the ear should come before that of the tongue,—that we must learn to catch and understand the sounds of the language before we can learn to utter them, and that to attempt the latter before attending to the former can only result in bad vocal habits difficult to overcome.

It is for these reasons that we divide this part of the student's work into two separate tasks,—learning to understand the spoken tongue, and learning to speak it.

In ordinary practice the distinction is made loosely when it is made at all, and a great many teachers begin teaching the pronunciation at the outset, even before the student has begun to translate.

To some extent the four parts into which the task of learning a language is divided, overlap each other, of course, and they neither can nor should be wholly separated, but it is in every way best that the student shall take them up in the order here given, letting them run into each other where they do so naturally, but

treating them, in the main, as separate parts of the work he has undertaken.

We have already seen that before we can learn to speak a language properly we must so educate our ear as to distinguish its sounds nicely, whether they be uttered separately in syllables, or combined into words and sentences. We must learn to *hear* the language before we can learn to speak it, and this can be learned only through the ear.

Books do not address themselves to the ear, and therefore books can never teach us either to hear or to speak. For this, and for this only in the study of language, a teacher is absolutely necessary. The student cannot learn it by himself, and no book can assist him. He must have a teacher, but any person native to the tongue, who can read it, will do for a teacher, if he be instructed a little in the art of teaching what he knows, and hence I give here some suggestions as to how the ear and the tongue can best be trained, so that in the absence of a competent teacher the student may be able to make use of any person who speaks the language as a mother tongue, himself instructing his teacher how to proceed. A very small expenditure for the services of some such person will thus cover the whole cost of learning the language.

It matters little, in this case, whether the teacher understands English or not. All that is required of him is a correct pronunciation of his own language.

The teacher should begin with a book which the student has recently read, one with which he is thoroughly familiar. At first he should pronounce slowly and distinctly the words of the book, while the student listens, with the text before him. A phrase at a time carefully

uttered, and as nearly as possible with the conversational accent, will soon enable the student to follow without looking at the text, if it be a familiar one, and as soon as this can be done at all the use of the eye should be dispensed with, so that the unassisted ear may be brought into full activity.

When any sound is not accurately caught by the student, or when it does not carry its full meaning with it, he should stop his teacher and have the words spoken again and again until their sound and their sense are perfectly clear. When exercises of this sort become easy, the teacher must read whole sentences at once without dividing them into their clauses, and as soon as the student can follow him in them he should begin to increase the rapidity of his reading, taking care that the increase each day is so slight that the student does not lose either the sound or the sense of what is read.

When the student's proficiency is such that he can readily comprehend a familiar text, read rapidly, one less familiar should be substituted, and a very few weeks of diligent application will so train the learner's ear that he will have no difficulty in understanding any book read aloud in the language in hand.

It will now be time for him to begin his efforts at pronunciation. To make earlier attempts is not only useless, but positively injurious. The uneducated ear imperfectly catches the foreign accent, and the tongue as imperfectly utters it. A bad habit of ear is confirmed and a bad habit of tongue is created. But when the ear clearly catches the sounds of the language, so that the sound is unmistakable in itself, and carries its meaning with it, the tongue will be easily trained to the

power of reproducing it, and the well-schooled ear will readily detect and rapidly cure the imperfections of the tongue's performances.

This postponement of the first efforts at pronunciation until after the ear has learned the language, will not only greatly facilitate the learner's progress, but will also make his pronunciation, in the end, much more perfect than it otherwise could be.

As soon as the learner is so far advanced that he can readily understand the reading of his teacher, he should begin the habit of mentally pronouncing after him, as an additional preparation for the task of learning to speak the language, and when he can follow rapidly read prose, he should substitute poetry in its stead. As verse is necessarily somewhat involved in style, it cannot be translated quite as rapidly as an ordinary reader reads it, and hence it is particularly valuable at this stage of the student's progress, because he must understand it in the original, without translation, if he understands it at all.

The teacher should also talk with his pupil only in the language he is learning, not only for the sake of adding so much to the exercises, but also because in his conversation he will pronounce with the natural accent, a thing which can never be perfectly done in reading.

The student who has learned to read the language easily before beginning this part of his task, should be able to understand the spoken tongue after a month or six weeks of this kind of practice, and he will then be prepared to enter upon the next stage of his journey, namely—

LEARNING TO SPEAK THE LANGUAGE.

In learning to pronounce a foreign tongue the one thing to be guarded against is error. It is far easier and infinitely better to avoid error than to correct it. A word once mispronounced is more difficult to manage afterwards than one that has not been attempted at all.

For this reason it is better not to begin this part of the task at all until the ear is pretty well skilled in its function, after which the pronunciation is readily and correctly mastered. But even when this precaution has been taken, the student should attempt no word until he is sure that he knows its exact sound, to which end the teacher should begin by pronouncing a very short phrase two or three times, slowly and distinctly, the pupil listening until he is sure that he has mastered it with his ear. When this has been done he should take it up in his turn, saying it over until it falls from his tongue without conscious effort.

If he pronounces wrong, the teacher must stop him and repeat the process from the first.

After a little time the length of the phrases may be increased, gradually, until the pupil can repeat whole sentences, slowly at first,—more rapidly afterwards. As the teacher reads, the pupil should attend with his ear only, not looking at the printed page, but taking the words from their articulate rather than their written form. That this may be the more perfectly done, the student should wholly abstain from reading aloud until his pronunciation is fixed. He should learn the spoken language wholly through his ear. He may retain

it afterwards by reading aloud, but it cannot be learned satisfactorily in that way.

There are some languages, however, in which the orthography and pronunciation bear a constant and uniform relation to each other—languages in which every letter, and every combination of letters, has its fixed and certain sound. In these, reading aloud as an auxiliary exercise is well enough. In these, too, a very brief tutelage will give the student all the sounds of the language, and enable him by reading to perfect his pronunciation of all the words, without further assistance from a master.

When the student shall have learned to pronounce most of the words in common use, he has only to practice his art, both by reading and by conversation with his teacher, to make himself as nearly perfect in speaking the language as it is practically possible for English-speaking people to become. Should he be surrounded by people to whom the language is a mother tongue, he will of course talk with them only in their native idiom ; but where this is not the case, some care is necessary to prevent the gradual loss of the power to speak in the acquired idiom.

Reading aloud without hearers is not a pleasing task, and hearers sufficiently proficient to follow the reader are not always to be found. To supply this want it is well to commit passages from books to memory, and to repeat them frequently aloud. In other words, the art of pronouncing a foreign language when once acquired can only be retained by practicing it, and anything which furnishes occasion for practice is useful to this end.

I have thus given the spirit of this much of M. Mar-

cel's system, condensing it as far as it is practical to do so, and altering its details wherever I have thought a change desirable to adapt it more perfectly to the uses of that class of students for whom chiefly these pages are written. In making these alterations of detail, however, I have taken care not to depart from the principle on which his system is based.

I omit wholly the remainder of his teachings,—all that he says about learning the conversational idiom so that the pupil's thoughts will flow in it freely, and all of the chapters on the Art of Writing, on Mental Culture, and on Routine. Parts of these have no practical value to students without a master, as they refer chiefly to the art of teaching rather than to that of learning. Other parts are wholly foreign to the purposes of this volume.

As to the art of writing a foreign language, I deem it unnecessary to say anything, inasmuch as it follows, almost without effort, the art of reading. Any one who can read French, for instance, sufficiently well to appreciate the text without translating it, can hardly fail to write it well, with very little practice.

THE ROBERTSONIAN SYSTEM.

Another very admirable system of learning foreign languages is that of Professor Robertson. In its general design it closely resembles the plan already sketched, and in many respects it is but a practical application of the principles elaborated in M. Marcel's work, though there are some important points of difference between the two plans.

The Robertsonian text-books are prepared for use in schools, and have therefore many things in them, of

which the student without a master cannot make use, but omitting these, the books themselves may be used with advantage by any class of learners.

The text consists of a simple story, so ingeniously constructed that its telling involves all the idioms of the language to be learned, in succession, repeating each constantly, so that even in his earliest lessons the student becomes familiar with all the peculiarities of structure and phraseology, which under the old systems of teaching presented the chief difficulties in his path.

A portion of the text is taken up in each lesson, and printed with a slavish, verbal, English translation interlined. This is followed by a translation into good English. Then follow a series of questions and answers, and sentences for oral translation, made up exclusively of words and phrases from the text, which furnish from the first admirable exercises in double translation, and also rapidly train the pupil in the art of thinking in the language he is learning, and reading it without translating.

This much of each lesson is designed for those who wish to learn the language rapidly and practically. Appended to each of these lessons is a grammatical dissertation for the benefit of those who desire to study the tongue critically as they go on.

The system dispenses, as Marcel's does, with the use of a dictionary, and the text-books are provided with abundant instruction as to the manner of their use, so that the student who shall adopt them will need no guidance of this sort here.

On the whole I prefer the system already sketched to that of Professor Robertson, but the two are so nearly the same in principle that the student cannot err

greatly in selecting either, and whether he shall follow the one or the other, his progress will be far more rapid than it could possibly be on the old grammar and dictionary plan.

Before quitting this subject let me give a word of warning to the student—let me remind him that in all education, beyond what is necessary to supply the immediate business wants of the man, culture is of more value than learning; and with this fact before him the student will readily understand why I say that one language thoroughly mastered is better than a dozen half learned.

If he has taken up French, let him follow that alone, to the exclusion of all other tongues, until he shall have so far mastered its principles as to read it freely and easily. Not until he shall have done this will it be wise for him to begin the study of another language.

CHAPTER V.

THE HIGHER MATHEMATICS.

THE NATURE AND VALUE OF MATHEMATICAL STUDY.

We have already had something to say in regard to the value of mathematical study, in the practical usefulness of its teachings and in the culture it brings with it. The practical uses of mathematical knowledge are apparent on every hand, and the culture incident to close, exact study scarcely needs mention.

But there are circumstances which affect the relative value of the mathematics as compared with other studies, and it is necessary that the student who must content himself with a partial education, shall have these in mind in determining how much of the mathematics he will undertake. So far as the bread and butter utility of this or any other kind of study goes,—so far as the question is one of the market value of the learning to be gained, the student will have no difficulty in deciding for himself, as in this respect his decision is dependent almost wholly upon the nature of his proposed business in life. If he is making an engineer or a mechanician of himself, he needs to know all he can learn of mathematical principle and mathematical fact. If he

would be a lawyer, or a merchant, or a physician, his practical needs in this matter do not go beyond a good knowledge of arithmetic.

In the matter of culture, however, the case is very different. If the student's business or circumstances are likely to require a habit of close, exact reasoning, careful analysis, and minute investigation, he needs exactly the culture which a study of the mathematics will give him. If his habits of mind are loose and careless, —if he knows himself prone to jump at conclusions, and to accept opinions upon insufficient evidence, if he lacks the power or the habit of discriminating nicely between the probable and the proved, he needs the culture incident to mathematical study, more than discipline of any other sort, and should therefore give the mathematics as large a place as possible in the course he is marking out for himself.

If, on the other hand, his intellectual wants are of a wholly different character, as is often the case, and he has but limited time at his disposal, he may spend that time in something more profitable to him, at least than mathematics.

Again, in some cases, there may be occasion for some drilling in mathematical habits, without the necessity which exists in others for a complete course of the kind.

The question in every case must be decided by the circumstances surrounding that case, and these circumstances the student only can know fully. He should ascertain precisely what his wants are, in the matter of culture as well as in that of learning, and govern himself accordingly.

THE PROCESSES.

The ideal text-book in mathematics is one which explains every principle in the order of its use, and after explaining it, gives the student exercises which enable him to grasp it and to fasten it in his mind. The actual text-book falls considerably short of this, as every teacher knows, and every student finds out.

But in the very nature of things, mathematical text-books are better adapted to their purpose than text-books of any other kind, and there is nothing to prevent any student of ordinary mathematical capacity from proceeding alone from elementary Algebra to the Calculus, with no assistance other than that of his text-books. Indeed, all there is known of mathematics was wrought out originally without even this assistance.

The exactitude of mathematical processes is such that the text-books must of necessity furnish nearly all the aid any earnest student can wish, and hence there is comparatively little for us to say here as to the manner of pursuing studies of this class. A word or two, however, may be of service alike to students in and out of school.

THE ORDER OF STUDIES.

In regard to the order in which the several branches of the mathematics are to be studied, there is very little variation.

We must begin with algebra, of necessity, as it is the basis of all the rest, and while many teachers put their pupils into geometry, as soon as they are fairly grounded in the elements of algebra, it seems to me that the plan is in every way a bad one, giving birth

to much trouble throughout the remainder of the course, and ending in imperfect scholarship at last. Such a course is especially bad when the student has no master, and I have rarely known a case in which the attempt, on the part of a self-taught student, has not resulted either in a complete breaking down and an abandonment of the mathematics altogether, or in a system of empirical study requiring all the work and giving none of the culture incident to a complete mastery of the science.

The better plan is to take up first a book on elementary algebra, and to master it absolutely. This should be followed by Davies' Bourdon, and when the student shall have completed that, his road through all the remainder of the mathematics will be both an open and an easy one.

With Geometry, Plane and Spherical Trigonometry, Analytical Geometry, Navigation and Surveying, which are the branches commonly studied before the Differential and Integral Calculus is taken up, the order in which I have placed them here is as good as any other.

None of them will present any formidable difficulty to the student who has begun by making his knowledge of algebra complete, and where this has been done, the studies enumerated above should not, in the aggregate, demand more time or more work than was necessary to the mastery of algebra.

In other words, algebra, if learned thoroughly, is in time and labor about half the ordinary collegiate course of pure mathematics.*

* Surveying and Navigation are, properly, *applied* and not pure mathematics, but for the sake of convenience I follow here the common classification.

THE WAY TO STUDY ALGEBRA.

When you begin the study of algebra, remember that it is *fact* from beginning to end; that it has been discovered, and not invented; that every operation is the application of one or more principles, and that a knowledge of the operations is worth nearly nothing when the principles governing them are not fully understood. What has been said on this point with regard to the study of arithmetic, is, if possible, even more strongly applicable to that of algebra.

Beginning with a clear comprehension of these points, the student should, as far as possible, follow the original process by which the principles of algebra were evolved from each other. He should begin with a full understanding that the science of abstract numbers is a complete structure, made of many parts, each of which was learned in the beginning from those which precede it, and as far as possible he should build the structure piece by piece for himself. To a great extent this may be done without a close following of the book, and where this is the case the text-book should be used only as a general guide, and as a mentor for the verification of work and the correction of error.

Where it is necessary to follow the book strictly, the student should endeavor not only to comprehend each principle, but to discover also just how it follows from those that have preceded it, and how others are to grow out of it.

Almost every new principle will be found to rest upon two or three previously learned, each being a corollary not ordinarily from any single principle, but from a

combination of several, and this synthetical process, while it serves to make the student's progress in mathematical study much more rapid and greatly more satisfactory than it otherwise would be, is in itself the very best intellectual exercise incident to this branch of study. Without it one may learn mathematics, though not quite so thoroughly as with it, but in omitting it he loses the greater and better part of the mental discipline and culture to be derived from mathematical studies.

Moreover this habit serves still another purpose in making a study fascinating which is otherwise proverbially dry and uninteresting to the majority of students. Once formed, the habit should be continued throughout the course, but I dwell upon it here because algebra is the basis of all the other branches of higher mathematics, furnishing the groundwork of them all, and whatever is to be done in this regard must be begun at the bottom.

A WAY OUT OF DIFFICULTIES.

As a rule a principle should be thoroughly understood before it is used at all in the working of problems, but sometimes this is impossible, and when the student shall find it so, it will be well for him to proceed with the problems, applying the principle, as yet but imperfectly understood, as a means of grasping it. Sometimes the working of a problem or two will make a matter transparent which before was wholly incompresible. But in any event, never leave a principle until you do understand it. Never go on to others until you know what this one is, and the reason for its being

ANOTHER WAY OUT OF DIFFICULTIES.

When the explanations given in the book, and the working of the problems, fail to make the principle stated as clear as it should be to the student's mind, he should at once resort to the simplest available form of using the principle, and the result will almost always be entirely satisfactory.

Let me illustrate my meaning. I had a pupil once who came to a proposition something like this in her algebra:

$$4xab - (2xa + b) = \text{etc.}$$

"By the terms of this equation," the book went on to say, "we have

$$4xab - 2xa - b =" \text{ etc.}$$

The pupil could not understand why, in taking the $2xa + b$ out of parenthesis, the plus signs should be changed to minus ones. She knew very well that there was a rule to that effect in the book, but she was trying to learn algebra rather than the rules of algebra, and so she sought an explanation. She had already worked out three or four problems involving this process of removing terms from parenthesis, but had been wholly unable to grasp the reasons for the change of signs made.

I substituted figures for the letters and wrote the following, as different forms of one equation.

$$20 - (6 + 4) = 10.$$
$$20 - 6 - 4 = 10.$$
$$20 - 10 = 10.$$

Giving her this, I left her to work out the principle involved for herself, and she soon discovered that the 6

and the 4, both positive quantities, were *together* to be subtracted, in obedience to the minus sign, from 20, and the reason for the change of signs in removing the figures from the parenthesis was apparent at once.

I strongly commend such a resort to the simplest form of arithmetical or algebraic expression which can be made to involve the principle, as the very best way of grasping what cannot be comprehended at first in more abstract or complicated shape.

The student will have no difficulty in forming for himself abundant exercises of this kind, adapted to his particular wants as they shall occur.

RULES.

In algebra, as in arithmetic, the rules are merely generalizations after the fact. As such they are very valuable, but the student is constantly in danger of losing sight of their real character, and treating them as rules for the solution of problems.

He should solve his problems on principle, and take the rules as succinct statements of what he has done,—not as rules for what he has to do. He should remember that these rules can have been made only by persons who were already familiar with the processes of which they tell,—that the processes create the rule, not the rule the processes. The temptation to err here is so great that good teachers often regret the presence of any rules at all in the books.

Not that these concise generalizations are valueless by any means. Every teacher knows that they may be made of very great use to the student, if only the principles involved be thoroughly understood before the formulas for their application are learned.

To the schoolboy the danger is far less than to the student without a master, anxious to get on. The former is made to explain his blackboard operations, and thus compelled, to some extent at least, to understand the principles as he applies them. The self-taught youth, on the other hand, has no check upon himself but his own will, and is therefore in constant danger of making a misuse of the rules in his book.

THE OTHER MATHEMATICS.

We have already seen that algebra, thoroughly learned, is not only about half the mathematical battle, but is in itself a key to everything that follows. Geometry, trigonometry, etc., present few difficulties to the student who has mastered his algebra before taking them up for study.

The directions given for the study of algebra are, in the main, applicable to the entire course, and there is little else to be said with reference to the succeeding parts of the mathematical curriculum. With a hint or two we will pass to other things.

Concrete study is always better than abstract, and self-made problems are usually better for practice than those given in the books.

From first to last, therefore, the student should seize every possible opportunity to make problems for himself out of his surroundings, and whenever he can put any principle to a practical test in actual affairs, he will find it a very excellent thing to do.

When he shall have learned enough of mathematics to do so, he will find it a good plan to measure distances by triangulation, beginning with distances which

he can verify with his tape line, and passing on to the width of rivers or ponds, and similar practical problems.

Where he studies surveying, he should at once join an engineering party, if possible, doing, in time, all parts of the field and chart work, and observing the work of others. When this is impracticable he should at least spend some weeks in amateur surveying, using his compass or his transit instrument himself, and making his own field notes. When he shall have done this, his notes will furnish him abundant material for chart making, and if he has been at all skillful in the selection of his ground he will have at his hand problems involving nearly all the principles his books have taught him.

Mining and other engineering work, practical mechanics, etc., are within the reach of almost every student of applied mathematics, and the student who would perfect himself should neglect no opportunity of studying them thus practically.

I must add one other suggestion before quitting the subject of mathematics, and that is that the student, especially if he have no master, should be himself a teacher of others if possible. While yet studying algebra he should teach some one else the parts over which he has passed, and so on throughout the course. Teaching others is an excellent aid to the learning of anything, and I once knew a young man who learned Latin entirely by teaching it to a younger brother. He knew the earlier parts of the grammar, and began, half in sport, to teach his pupil. The brother learned rapidly and forced the teacher to learn in order that he might teach, and the end was success for both.

But teaching is especially valuable to the student of

mathematics, inasmuch as it requires constant analysis and a constant explanation of the principles already mastered, and is, withal, the best possible system of review, where reviewing is most necessary. If a student can secure a pupil less advanced than himself, therefore, let him do so by all means, and let him not count the time spent in teaching as lost, or unprofitably used.

CHAPTER VI.

PHYSICAL SCIENCE.

WE have already seen that there are two schools of thinkers in the matter of education, the one advocating the study of ancient languages as the chief part of higher education, while the other estimates such study but lightly in comparison with the learning of physics.

Each of these schools is right, doubtless, or nearly so, in the estimate it places upon its own favorite branch of learning, but each is equally wrong, perhaps, in its valuation of the other. The ideal education embraces both the classics and the sciences, and every education that can claim to be anything like a worthy one must embrace something, at least, of each.

I have already hinted at the practical importance of scientific study, and I have endeavored to suggest some of the dangers incident to a too exclusive pursuit of learning of this kind. I think the inherent and necessary tendency of the sciences to narrow specialties is full of danger to the student, particularly if his mind is not already balanced by a liberal culture in other directions. Of course the great work of scientific research can only be carried forward adequately by scientific specialists, and we must have such men of necessity. But no one of them advances science much.

No one of them grasps enough to do much by himself. No one of them is a scientist in the full sense of the term. Each does his little part, all the more thoroughly because it is so small, and the aggregate result is a grand one. But these little delvers after single facts, who must confine their operations to very narrow limits, and hedge themselves in on every side lest they divide to wasting, do not furnish us models of liberally educated men by any means. *

The story is told of an old German linguist who had devoted his whole life to the study of the Greek article, to the exclusion of everything else, that when dying he cautioned his son against the danger of wasting his energies by attempting too much. "This has been my own error in life," he said. "I have taken the whole article for a study, and it is too great for any one man's mastery. I ought to have confined myself to the dative case."

The aggregate of such men's work is a grand one, and the work is one which could never be done except by men willing to work within these limits.

The world cannot spare men of this kind. Neither can we spare the toilers in mines, but the value of their work does not in any way lessen the peril it brings to the workers.

Let me not be misunderstood. The scientific special-

* Of course I am not now speaking of the eminent scientific men, who, while they are unquestionably students of specialties, are also broadly cultivated in things other than science, and in science know vastly more than their chosen specialties embrace. Men of this kind are models for all of us, and as will be seen elsewhere, I hold that to be the best practical education which makes its possessor complete master of some one thing, and reasonably familiar with other branches of human knowledge. What the student is especially urged to do is to lay the broadest foundation of general culture possible, and then to do what he wishes to do in any particular direction.

ist does his full share of the world's work and should receive his full share of its honors. He does his work all the better because he works at but one thing. So does the man in a watch factory, who knows nothing about the manufacture of a watch except how to cut the cogs on a single wheel. Neither he nor any one of his hundred fellows could possibly make a watch, but together they produce much better watches than any one man can possibly make.

I say nothing against the system of specialties as a means of forwarding scientific investigation. I only say that the too exclusive study of specialties is not the best form of education for the development of well-balanced men, and that, in this view of the matter, the tendency of all scientific study to run into excess in this direction is a danger incident to it.

I need not detail the advantages of scientific knowledge. They are everywhere evident, and the tendency of the age is to exalt physics, even to the depreciation of everything else.

WHAT PHYSICS TO STUDY.

The student who can push his education beyond the narrowest possible limits, will almost certainly wish to learn something of physical science. That he should do so there can be no doubt. But there are so many branches of scientific study that unless he has some special inducement to some one of them it will puzzle him to determine just what and how much to take up.

There are several points to be considered in deciding the question.

In the first place the sciences are not like the languages. All our tongues are akin, it is true, but they

are so far separate and individual wholes that they must ordinarily be treated as almost wholly distinct, when we ask ourselves which of them we will learn. It is not so with the sciences. These so far run into each other as to be in some sense one. They are but parts of a whole—the whole being nature in all her conditions. They are classified separately, but each involves something of the others. Chemistry and natural philosophy underlie most of them, and it is impossible to know any one of them thoroughly without knowing something of at least some of the others.

THE OBJECT SOUGHT.

Now, with this fact in mind, the student must ask himself what his purpose is, in the study of science, and how much time he ought to give to its pursuit. If his object be to advance himself in any business in which a knowledge of chemistry, or of botany, or of mineralogy, or of some other branch of physics will be of special use, let him by all means pursue the study needed.

If he simply wishes to become liberally educated, he will want to know all the more commonly studied sciences at least moderately well.

The subjects with which the several sciences deal are manifest enough to need no explanation, and the student can make his selections advisedly from the first.

HOW TO STUDY PHYSICS.

Science is so largely experimental, as yet, that there can be no such thing as perfect and exact text-books on the subject. The chemists thought for many years

after chemistry became a recognized branch of physical study, that water was an elementary substance, and when the idea that it is a compound was first put forth, it was stoutly denied by nearly all the chemists of the day. Now our greatest scientists do not feel at all certain that they have as yet discovered any absolutely elementary substance. They are more confident of carbon in this respect than of anything else, but they readily admit that even carbon may prove to be a compound. Everything about what we ordinarily call the sciences is in a state of development and progress. We are learning new facts and correcting old errors every day. Every branch of scientific study is changing its teachings, and therefore there can be nothing like permanency in the text-books, and none but the latest of these should be used.

This is the first point to be observed. Let the student get the very latest recognized authorities in every case, and when he shall come to study them, let him remember constantly that their statements of fact are in many cases only statements of the best received opinion as to facts still under investigation, and still but uncertainly known. It is only in this spirit, and with this understanding, that he can hope to benefit himself largely by the study of physics.

The facts just stated lead, too, to another injunction. The student who would make himself anything more than a mere parrot in his knowledge of physical science, must be to some extent a pioneer. He may accept authority in a general way, but he should always feel himself free to reverently doubt its conclusions, and to test them for himself by personal observation and experiment. There is no other way of accomplish-

ing any worthy results in these branches of human learning, and I put these cautions at the fore, for the reason that their absence results in so many failures.

In the study of science, whether on a large or small scale, whether in a general or a special way, no instructor is at all necessary to the earnest student. The rudimentary parts are all easily learned from the text-books, and in our day there is no lack of able and exhaustive treatises of a higher sort. All these may be mastered quite as well without as with a teacher, and while the apparatus and the collections of specimens in our colleges furnish excellent aids to the study of all the sciences, their absence is not fatal by any means. Plates supply their places in part, and a little industry will enable the student to supply them still further in many ways.

I know a woman, living in a retired country place, who without teachers has made herself an accomplished botanist, and not only so, but she has, little by little, accumulated an herbarium that would do honor to a college, and her country garden has a botanical corner where she has tested rare plants from every quarter of the world.

I know a young man, too—or rather a boy, for he is hardly of age yet—who, with very meagre educational advantages of any sort, has so far mastered natural history as to have attracted the attention of distinguished professors, who have been glad to avail themselves of his services as an assistant in their work. His collection of specimens, too, is a very creditable one.

I mention these things for the encouragement of students who wish to follow scientific studies, but

doubt their ability to accomplish the purpose worthily without instructors and without access to the collections and cabinets of the colleges.

So far as the sciences can be learned from books at all, they may be learned without masters. Beyond this the student will ordinarily have no need to go, unless he wishes to make a specialist of himself, and in that event he must resort to direct investigation on his own account, attaching himself, if possible to scientific expeditions, or in some other way securing the best conditions of study at his command.

CHAPTER VII.

MORAL AND INTELLECTUAL SCIENCE.

THE VALUE OF THIS KIND OF STUDY.

In marking out his schedule of studies there is no class of subjects which the self-guided student so often overlooks as that which forms the subject of this chapter.

It is worthy of remark that in the University of Virginia, and other institutions where the studies are optional, and where men graduate separately in the several schools, the students who do not work for degrees more frequently omit studies of this class than those of any other. I have even known students in these institutions, who graduated in all the schools but this, and left without degrees, because they deemed the study of intellectual science so wholly valueless that they could not afford to devote to it even the limited time which would have been necessary to add its diploma to their others, and thus to secure their degree.

THE CAUSE OF THE MISTAKE.

The mistake is a very natural one, doubtless, but none the less serious on that account.

In our age and country the utilitarian idea has become so strong that it often transcends its proper

limits. People who measure everything by its practical value, are very apt to see utility only in those things which bring money to the purse ; and further than this they nearly always fail to reach sound conclusions even in this respect, by falling into the error of looking only at the value of the *learning* acquired in particular studies, estimating the culture at nothing.

A moment's reflection should show the student the fallacy of both of these conclusions. Inasmuch as money is by no means the only good to be sought in life, things which do not add to the ability to make money may be quite as useful and quite as practical as those that do ; and in estimating even the money value of education, the culture it brings is quite as worthy of consideration as the learning incident to it.

THE VALUE OF THESE STUDIES AS A MEANS OF CULTURE.

Now as a means of high culture there is hardly any part of the college course more valuable than the studies embraced under the general head of moral and intellectual philosophy. It is true too that these studies are peculiarly valuable, even if they be measured by the most strictly practical standard.

The object of education, as we have already seen, is to fit the man for life ; to prepare him to fill, as perfectly as possible, his place in the world ; to enable him to do his best work for himself and for others, and certainly no one should doubt that the cultivation and development of the reasoning faculties, and their instruction in the laws which should govern all their operations, are matters of moment to this end. At every step in life we are called upon to use precisely the faculties which are cultivated by studies of this class, and at

least half the failures and nearly all the blunders we make result from the imperfect or perverse action of these faculties.

Of course no amount of training can make our judgments perfect, or enable us to reason infallibly on any speculative subject; but from the study of intellectual philosophy we learn the principles of sound reasoning and cultivate habits of correct thought, which cannot fail to serve us in good stead throughout life.

Reason is our crown of glory. It is the ability to reason that chiefly distinguishes us from brute beasts, and elevates us above them, and certainly there can be no part of education more to be desired than that which deals with this faculty, teaches us its nature, and its laws, and trains us in its use.

THEIR VALUE AS A PREPARATION FOR OTHER STUDY.

But aside from all this, the studies of this class are peculiarly valuable as aids to the mastery of others. The student who has trained himself somewhat in the ability to reason logically, and has cultivated that ability by following out the ratiocinations of able thinkers in the text-books which follow Logic, will find far less difficulty in his study of mathematics and the physical sciences than he otherwise would, while the still larger education which comes from within rather than from without—the education of intelligent and systematic thought, can only come fully to those who have, in one way or another, cultivated themselves in this direction.

Of course I do not mean to say that the art of reasoning correctly is wholly an art to be learned, or that there are no studies other than those we are now considering, which serve to cultivate and develop the facul-

ties in question. The mathematics do this in a very large degree, and other studies help, too, in their several ways. Even outside of study altogether, men cultivate the reasoning faculties constantly. But faculties so all-important as these should receive the best possible training and the fullest measure of it. It is not enough that we shall reason approximately well; we need to reason at our very best, and to this end we need not only to exercise and cultivate these faculties of mind, but also to inform them fully as to their own processes, the rules that should govern them, the errors into which they are apt to fall, and the tests by which the accuracy of their operations can be measured. To this end we need to learn logic theoretically and to familiarize ourselves with its applications in the text-books which follow logic in the regular order of studies.

THE PRACTICAL WISDOM OF THEIR TEACHINGS.

In addition to all this, we find in the course of study now under consideration much practical wisdom that every man needs; inasmuch as our moral perceptions are never so keen or so perfect as they should be, we cannot fail to derive great benefit from a study of systematic ethics. While we are yet children we may govern ourselves in the matter morals by the precepts of our natural advisers and guardians, but when we become men and women we need such a grounding in the laws of morality that we shall be able to govern ourselves intelligently without leading-strings. Education contemplates the development and culture of the whole man,—the ripening of all his faculties, mental, moral, and physical, and the education which does not

include the culture of the moral sense and its subjection to law, is lamentably deficient.

The other studies of this class are similarly valuable. Our knowledge of English can never be what it should be. until we shall have learned something of the laws of figurative language, which, though not strictly a part of intellectual philosophy, are so nearly akin to it as to be classed with it in most courses of study. There is nothing in which young writers and speakers are more apt to blunder than in the use of figures of speech, and it is no uncommon thing for a reader to lose the force of a passage or to misconceive its meaning totally, from a want of just this training.

The same thing is true of the other parts of Rhetoric. They serve to perfect the student in the use of his mother tongue, and should if possible be added to the course of English study already prescribed in a former chapter.

Political Economy deserves a large share of the attention in any case, and with us, in a country where the people govern, or more properly, perhaps, where they could govern if they would, there is certainly no subject of speculative study so universally needed.

We all complain of mob rule, of the tyranny of parties, of the reign of rings and cabals and cliques ; we all lament the corruption and the venality of our politics, and yet we have only ourselves to blame for the lamentable facts of which we complain. We take no trouble to inform ourselves upon the principles of government. We attach ourselves to parties. We call ourselves Democrats or Republicans as our prejudices may dictate, and blindly vote for the men nominated by the selfish managers of these parties, taking their doc-

trines of governmental policy and their personal honesty upon trust, until our elections have come to be little more than a scramble for spoils.

Now and then we meet men who dare to be independent of party, and vote intelligently for the weal of the state ; but these are few indeed, and the great majority even of otherwise intelligent men vote the ticket of their party without inquiry as to the correctness of its principles, the wisdom or justice of its policy, or even the personal rectitude and trustworthiness of the men it commends to their suffrages.

Every political platform is simply an insult to all intelligent men. These documents profess to set forth the doctrines and policy advocated by the party and represented in its candidates. In point of fact they do nothing of the kind. They are simply cleverly executed palimpsests which may be read either way ; they are ingeniously contrived traps for the catching of votes, and when once their purpose has been served, nobody ever thinks of holding the officers, who have been elected upon them, to an honest fulfillment of their promises.

These are notorious facts, and in them lies, without doubt, the greatest danger to which our republican institutions are exposed. We are, as a people, altogether too ignorant of political economy, and we care too little about it.

If we would govern ourselves well, and free ourselves from the despotism of corrupt parties, we must take the matter really and truly into our own hands. We must inform ourselves upon the laws of political economy and be prepared to vote as our convictions of justice and policy may dictate, without regard to the consistency which demands a perpetual adherence to a

party name; and when any considerable portion of the American people shall do this, even though it be but a respectable minority, its possession of the "balance of power" will compel a purification of parties, and force them to set forth clearly, distinctly and honestly their real principles and purposes, and to carry them out faithfully when in power.

That such an end is greatly to be desired, nobody will deny, and it can only be accomplished by individual efforts. But if it shall never be reached even approximately there is still no reason why the student should neglect to make himself as intelligently capable as possible, of the performance of his duties as a citizen.

THE ORDER AND METHODS OF STUDY.

Having glanced thus briefly at the value and importance of studies of this class, we come now to the question of the order and the methods of their pursuit.

Except that Logic underlies most of them to a great extent, and should therefore be the first of these subjects taken up, there is no very necessary order of sequence to be preserved, and should circumstances make it desirable to alter the order I shall give, there will be no harm done. Otherwise I think the student's progress will be more systematic and satisfactory if he will take them up somewhat as they are arranged below.

He should begin with Logic, and his text-book need not be a very large or a very costly one. A compact, concise treatise on the subject will give him its principles fully, and enlighten him sufficiently in regard to the modes of their application. A very excellent manual of this kind was issued some years ago by Profes-

sor Coppée, of the United States Military Academy at West Point. The first edition, which is the only one I have seen, was full of typographical errors, many of them marring the sense ; but this defect has doubtless been cured in later editions. If so, I know of no better work on the subject for the use of students without masters. Its statements of principle are singularly clear and concise ; its illustrations are very apt, and its brevity and cheapness are greatly in its favor.

With such a text-book, of which there are several of nearly equal value, the student can easily master the elements of Logic. He will need only to read it carefully twice—the first time slowly, that he may understand its principles in detail, the second time more rapidly, that he may fix the system, as a whole, in his mind.

He should then take up Rhetoric, studying it very much in the same way, but adding to the study of the book such exercises as will readily suggest themselves for the fixing of its rules in his mind, and for intelligent practice in its teachings.

Archbishop Whateley's and Professor Coppée's treatises are as good, perhaps, as any others as elementary text-books. and their study should be followed by the perusal of works of a more elaborate kind on the subject, such, for instance, as Campbell's Philosophy of Rhetoric.

After completing the study of elementary Rhetoric, however, and before reading more exhaustive works on the subject, the student should read Lord's Laws of Figurative Language, or some similar manual, as a proper supplement to the study of systematic Rhetoric in its elementary form.

Next in order should come Ethics, and for an elementary text-book, I know of nothing better than Dr. Francis Wayland's Elements of Moral Science, which is used more generally, perhaps, than any other, in the colleges of this country. It needs only a careful reading, to make its principles clear to the student's mind, and it should, if possible, be followed by some more elaborate work on the philosophy of morals, such for instance as Coleridge's Aids to Reflection, or Victor Cousin's The Good, Beautiful and True.

Many students will find in the list already given as much labor as they can well devote to abstract studies of this kind. They will already have learned something of metaphysics, and will have no time to devote to the study of intellectual philosophy, pure and simple. These will need to pass at once to Political Economy.

But where the limitations of time are not so narrow, I strongly recommend a course in mental philosophy, strictly so called, and it should properly follow the studies we have just considered.

The student should read Lord Bacon's Novum Organum, Locke on the Understanding, and Brown's Philosophy of the Human Mind, as text-books, to which, if he wishes to extend his philosophical reading, he may add, with advantage, the works of Herbert Spencer, Sir William Hamilton, Dr. McCosh, President Noah Porter, John Stuart Mill, and others, as occasion may serve.

The line between systematic, text-book study, and general reading is here so narrow that I add the foregoing catalogue of books in this place, though most of

them belong rather to the chapter on General Reading.

We come next to Political Economy; and here again it is very difficult to draw the line between study, in the schoolroom sense of the term, and general reading. I content myself, therefore, with remarking that the student needs first to acquaint himself with the principles of political economy from some good text-book—Dr. Wayland's Elements is the best one for the purpose, I think—and then to read as largely on the subject as he can, taking care to examine both sides of the questions on which our political philosophers differ widely. The chief of these is Free Trade *vs.* Protection, and on such a question the student should at least hear what both the schools have to say. If he has preconceived notions on the subject, as most of us have, there is the greater necessity for an examination of the arguments of the writers with whose conclusions he is at issue. For a brief but pretty complete course of reading on the subject I would recommend

Adam Smith's "Wealth of Nations;"

John Stuart Mill's "Principles of Political Economy;"

Mill's "System of Political Economy;"

Horace Greeley's "Science of Political Economy," and

H. C. Carey's "Political Economy."

And these may be read in any order of sequence, without material change of result.

I name these for the benefit of students who desire merely to make themselves familiar with the general features of the subject. Those who wish to study it thoroughly as a specialty, will of course read Bentham, De Quincey, Malthus, Colton, M'Culloch, and a score of other authors.

A similar enlargement of the course in other directions—logical, ethical or otherwise—will suggest itself to students who wish to make any of these a subject of special study, and for information as to the various books extant of these and other kinds, reference may be had to The Best Reading, a book published by Messrs. G.P. Putnam & Sons, in which the principal works on every subject are given in the alphabetical order of their authors' names, under alphabetically arranged titles as to subject, class, etc., and their comparative standing in literature indicated as nearly as practicable. The book may be had for a trifle, and cannot fail to be of very great service to any person who intends to read at all extensively, or to collect even the smallest library.

Even where no such purpose exists, such classified dictionaries of books are valuable as reading matter, as will be seen in our next chapter.

CHAPTER VIII.

GENERAL READING.

SOME WORDS OF WARNING.

THE student who shall follow at all adequately the course of study sketched in the preceding chapters, will, at its conclusion, have completed a very fair curriculum, and he will be master of most of the branches included in an ordinary collegiate education.

But by all means let him not make the mistake, too often fatal even to collegians, of supposing that his education is in any sense complete, and that he has enough either of the information or of the culture which constitute an education. In point of fact he has only learned how to educate himself and mastered the rudiments of his life studies. He has yet to read extensively, and to think,—to study general literature and to study men and things; he has yet to become complete master of himself,—to learn much in the school of self-criticism, to apply what he has learned to the practical affairs of life, and to make it his guide to the acquisition of larger measures of information and culture,—he has all this to do if he would reap the full rewards of his labor. And should he continue his work

for a lifetime, there will still be more unlearned than learned, and the culture will still be imperfect.

The point I would here enforce is simply this, that the course of study marked out for the student here and in the colleges, constitutes nothing more than an introduction to the real work of securing ripe scholarship and thorough culture.

I would have the student learn that there is more of information and infinitely more of culture to be gained in the study of general literature and in actual intellectual work, than in the most thorough of collegiate trainings.

As a preparation for profitable reading and successful work, regular systematic study cannot be too highly esteemed, but it should never for a moment be mistaken for the end to which it is only the means.

If, therefore, the student's time is so limited that his pursuit of systematic study will seriously abridge his after reading and other intellectual work, I strongly urge him to forego the former in large measure for the sake of the latter ; to content himself with a thorough mastery of the common school course I have recommended, and the merest outline of the one following it, that he may have time for the higher and better education of the library.

Extensive general reading may make cultivated, well-informed, well-balanced men without much knowledge of the text-books ; but no amount of text-book study, without extensive reading, ever yet brought about such a result.

I argue now, not *against* systematic study, but *in favor* of general reading. The study of text-books is an admirable beginning in the work of education, but it is

not the whole of that work. It is a means and not an end. It is very valuable, but not absolutely necessary in all cases, while a general acquaintance with literature, a large reading of books, is necessary always to anything like thorough culture, and may, by itself, accomplish the result.

Now, if the reader be indolent and inclined to self-indulgence, he will almost certainly construe these remarks into an easy excuse for his neglect of text-books, and I cannot help it. He may rest assured, however that indolent people are not the ones who manage to make reasonably well-educated men of themselves without much acquaintance with text-books, and that in any event his readiness to abandon the more laborious preliminary task argues badly for his success in the after work.

The training of the regular course is the best possible preparation for the self-culture that comes after it, and the young man who deliberately omits this preparation gives small promise of success without it.

The purpose of this volume is to tell the student what constitutes education, and how to secure as complete a one as his circumstances will permit. To this end I must show him the comparative importance of the several parts of his work, so that he may select judiciously where he must select some parts of the whole to the exclusion of others. My advice to every reader is,—Make your education as thorough, as wide, as complete and as well balanced as possible, but if you must omit some things belonging to the regular scheme, get all the light you can in regard to their comparative values, and then select, for omission, those which are the least necessary, remembering all the time

that every such omission is a loss which you cannot afford to sustain, if you can possibly help it. And this is precisely the extent of my meaning when I say that, as between text-book study and general reading, the preference should be given to general reading.

AN EXCEPTION.

To all this, however, there is one exception which must be made. In cases where for any good reason the student's purpose is the mastery of a specialty, he must of course make the text-books bearing on that specialty the basis of all his work, and must master them absolutely. But even this is an exception only in appearance, for students of this class, after they shall have mastered the text-books in their particular line, if their time is limited, will do better to pass at once to more general reading on the subject they have in hand, than to devote themselves to the study of text-books foreign to their purpose.

WHAT TO READ.

There is no question more frequently asked than "What shall I read?" Certainly there is no question more difficult to answer.

No man ever yet read all that he might have read with profit, and no reading man ever read half that he would have liked to read. The best that any of us can do in the matter is to do our best. That is to say, we can only read a part of what we need and would like to read, governing our selections in this, as in every thing else, by the circumstances in which we are placed.

An intelligent conception of the object we have in

view, however, and a little attention to the peculiar service which each particular class of literature is capable of rendering us, will greatly aid us in determining in a general way what we will read, and for the rest we must trust largely to accident and impulse.

If a man read only for amusement, he is very apt to read the most entertaining books within his reach, but in such cases accident has a large share in determining his selection. I have even known fairly intelligent men, when shut up under stress of weather at a country inn, where they could get nothing else, to read the dreary drivellings in sentimental annuals, rather than listen to the drearier drivellings of a tiresome landlord.

In these and similar cases, accident is the evident determiner of the choice. But even where the stress of circumstance is not so sore, at least half our reading is in part accidental, or the result of impulse. And, after all, if the taste be reasonably well cultivated, and there is no special end in view, it is a pretty good plan to follow the advice of an old reader, who, when requested by a youngster to mark out a *liberal* course of reading for him, wrote in reply, "Read just what you wish to read,—that is the most liberal course I can suggest."

Even this, however, is a course of reading impossible to follow fully, for who that reads at all ever succeeded in reading half that he wished?

But the taste is not always well cultivated, and so is often an unsafe guide.

Again, men do not all read merely for amusement, and those who care to make use of this manual are only those whose reading is for a definite purpose of some sort, general or particular. Now the differences of purpose on the part of different people make all the differ-

ence in the world in the answers that should be given to the question we are considering.

The first thing to be determined, therefore, is the purpose for which you intend to read, and the purposes of different people in this regard are as various as can well be imagined.

I remember hearing a young man ask an old reader what he should read, when a conversation something like this ensued:

Old Reader.—What do you want to read for?

Young Man.—That is rather a difficult question to answer.

Old Reader.—Very well. But you must answer it before I can possibly advise you what to read. If you wish to become a physician, I would strongly advise you to read standard medical works in preference to any others. If you aspire to the law, you might begin with Blackstone as an introductory work, following it up Kent's Commentaries and——

Young Man.—I don't want anything of that sort; I only want to inform myself generally.

Old Reader.—Very well. But I doubt that. Do you mean that you really wish to become a well-informed man, or do you merely wish to appear so—to be able to join in conversations on a great variety of subjects, and make a fair showing in society?

The young man admitted that this last was about his idea, though he seemed to have just discovered the fact.

"Very well, I say again," said the old reader, "your object is a very common one, and is easily accomplished. You have only to read Burton's Anatomy of Melancholy. If you can stand a little more, it would be

well enough to add Shakspeare to the list. The Bible you will read, of course."

The old reader was right. The purpose the young man had in view is a very common one, and the shortest possible road to its accomplishment is the one his adviser pointed out.

The incident serves also to show how essential it is to an intelligent selection of reading-matter that the prospective reader shall know precisely what are his objects in reading. In this, as in everything else, he should ascertain what he wants before he sets about the task of selecting it.

And yet this is rarely done. People who want to read are very apt either to trust blindly to accident, or to ask somebody to mark out a course for them to follow, or to adopt from some autobiography or other the course its author wishes that he had followed.

COURSES OF READING.

As a rule, set courses of reading are not advisable. In the first place, the cases in which they are faithfully followed are very few indeed, and where they are begun and after a while abandoned, a serious injury is done to to the reader, by his failure to carry out a purpose deliberately formed.

But aside from this, it is impossible for any person to decide, in advance of the reading, just what set of books will best accomplish his purpose. Suppose, for the sake of example, that the student wishes to make himself acquainted with the history of the times of the Stuarts. At the outset his course seems plain enough. There are half a dozen histories to be read, and a few books of the period to be looked over. But before he

shall have fairly started in his first history he will find that he needs to know something of the history of England previous to the accession of James the First. Then he will find that a clear comprehension of this much of English history is only possible to people who know, in a general way, the history of Europe during the middle ages. He will want also to know the causes of the Reformation, and of the peculiarities of the English revolt from Catholicism. To this end he must read something of church history and theological controversy. Many such necessities will arise, and it is hardly probable that the student can have marked out in the beginning just the books he now finds it necessary to read. He must either abandon the course originally determined upon and adopt a very different one, or else he must go on with the consciousness that he is allowing his preconceived rule of action to thwart the purpose it was designed to further.

All this is still more applicable, of course, to those cases in which the purpose is wider and more comprehensive than the one supposed above. It is not possible that the student, before he has begun his course of reading, can be at all competent to decide of what that course shall consist.

And the case is not changed materially by the calling in of a friend to act as adviser, for the best that he can do practically is to mark out two or three or four courses, between which the student must himself choose, and this is precisely what he is incompetent to do wisely.

The better plan, and indeed the only plan at all practicable, is to determine clearly your purpose in reading, and then to choose your books as you go on,

with strict reference to that purpose. You will find at every step abundant suggestions as to the next books to be taken up, and the only embarrassment with which you will meet will be that arising from the very multiplicity of desirable text-books.

I once knew a literary man who wanted to write an article on cats, and knowing very little about the subject he set himself to work reading up. He told me that in the outset he expected to find nothing about the animals in question, outside of the encyclopedias and natural histories. His first examination of one of these suggested four books to be consulted. These made frequent reference to others, and becoming interested in his subject he bought, before he knew it, a whole shelf full of cat literature, and then, as a matter of economy, began to frequent the great public libraries in search of the hundreds of other books from each of which something was to be learned about cats. He quitted the subject at last, but felt in quitting that he had not exhausted it.

Precisely the same thing may be done in any direction, and the only difficulty often is to know when to quit the pursuit of a topic for something else, and here again the predetermined purpose will be the best guide.

SOME GOOD RULES.

Believing as I do that prearranged courses of reading are not advisable, I shall of course mark out none, and holding that the reader should in every case decide for himself what he will read, I shall make no attempt to decide for him. But a few suggestions may enable him to see his own way more clearly.

READING UP.

Of course, when there is a particular subject on which the student wishes to inform himself, his only course is to "read up" on it, as the hack writers say, and the extent to which he should do this will be measured in each case by the extent of the need suggesting it. If he desires to make himself thorough master of a specialty, in all its bearings, he must read carefully everything he can find having reference to it. If he merely wishes to acquaint himself generally with the subject, a less elaborate reading will suffice.

There are many people who do all their reading in this way, and in the end they become pretty well informed on most subjects, but I doubt the wisdom of such a course where there are no circumstances to make it necessary. It is not productive of as much culture as other systems are, and people who practice it are very apt to read nothing at all at times when they have no special subject in hot chase. And yet the plan has the sanction of some great names. Among others Richard Brinsley Sheridan and Oliver Goldsmith are notable examples. It is related of the former that on one occasion, when a great financial question was under consideration in the House of Commons, he announced that he intended to speak upon it. His friends received the announcement with wondering smiles, as Sheridan was proverbial for his utter ignorance of figures. He had four days, however, in which to "read up," and at the end of that time he delivered one of the most masterly arithmetical arguments ever heard in the House.

His success showed what he could do in the way of

"cramming;" but with all his brilliancy, it can hardly be said that Sheridan was a very good model for anybody's following.

READING TO CURE DEFECTS.

There is one respect, however, in which it is very desirable that all our reading should be to some extent of this character. As in text-book study, so also in general reading, an effort should be made to supply defects both of information and of culture. The weak places need, and should have a constant strengthening. It is in these points that we fail, and it is of the utmost importance that our intellectual armor be made as complete and perfect as possible.

To this end the student must carefully study himself as his master would study him, recognizing every fault and every defect, in order that he may know clearly what he has to supply.

So far as the mere acquisition of information is concerned, this task is an easy one, but in the matter of culture it is more difficult, though even here we may know ourselves reasonably well if we choose to make the effort fairly and with as little prejudice as possible. Indeed we must do it, if we would make anything like well-balanced men and women of ourselves.

Having discovered important defects in his culture or his stock of information, the student should give himself at once to the work of curing them by reading such books as are best adapted to the accomplishment of that end.

READING TO STRENGTHEN STRONG POINTS.

On the other hand, if the student recognizes in him

self any point of peculiar strength—anything in which he is likely, from peculiar constitution or taste, to achieve an especial success, it will always be best for him to subordinate everything else to the cultivation of the one faculty which constitutes his strength.

READING BOTH SIDES.

In either case, whether the student reads for the full rounding of his education or for its perfection in a single direction, there is nothing more important than that he shall read both sides of every question he shall take up. If he read Hume's History of England, for instance, that reading will make Lingard almost a necessity to him.

That this is true of all speculative and historical literature is apparent, but the principle has a wider application than this. Even in matters of mere taste it is well to cultivate catholicity, and so it is a good plan to select poetry and other imaginative literature with reference to the cultivation of a wide and generous appreciativeness that shall embrace something more than a single school of poets or novelists. Mr. Thackeray rejoiced in his daughter's persistent and perpetual reading of Dickens, but it would have been greatly better for her had she turned sometimes from Nicholas Nickleby to Vanity Fair, even if she had made no more radical change of intellectual diet, for the prevention of intellectual dyspepsia.

HOW MUCH OF A BOOK TO READ.

Inasmuch as we cannot possibly read half or even a tenth of the books we would like to read, it is very important that we waste no time reading the less desirable portions of the books we do take up.

It is a rule often laid down for readers that they should never begin a book without going entirely through it. Now if every book contained only cream, and if there were only a very few books in the world worth reading, this would be excellent advice. But unfortunately there is a good deal of very thin skim-milk in many books that have some cream in them, and there are many more valuable books than any one can read.

When our purpose with a book has been served—when we have read those parts of it that we want, it is simply a waste of precious time to go on reading the parts that we do not particularly want, even though they be good in themselves, when there are so many other books that we greatly need to read.

Suppose, for instance, that you are studying the subject of popular education. In the middle of Mr. Herbert Spencer's Social Statics there is a chapter bearing upon the subject which you must certainly read. When you shall have read that, it would be simply absurd for you to go on and read the remainder of the book, although every chapter of it is valuable. You are reading for a particular purpose, and you have many books to read before that purpose will be accomplished. The one chapter is all that this book has to offer you in this particular direction, and you certainly cannot afford to spend time that should be given to other works on the subject, in reading the excellent chapters of Social Statics which do not bear upon it.

Dr. Johnson's advice was much sounder. His maxim was, "When you open a book, and become interested in the middle of it, never stop to begin at the beginning." The rule is a very good one in its letter, and a much better one in its spirit, which clearly is that we should

take pains to get at what we want in every book, with as little loss of time as possible. Himself an omnivorous reader, he knew thoroughly well the art of getting promptly at the kernels of all his books.

READING ABOUT BOOKS.

To be at all well-informed, one must know a good deal about books which he cannot possibly find time to read. He must know the authorship, the character, and history generally of vastly more books than he could possibly read in half a dozen lifetimes. He must know whence they came, what peculiar circumstances are connected with them, who their authors are, to what discussions they have given rise, what their effect upon the world has been, and what is their literary level. Not that all these things can be remembered in every case, or that they should be even deliberately studied in detail. But one's reading should at least have some reference to this, and he should seek to become thus acquainted with literature as a whole.

To this end even publishers' catalogues are not without value, particularly when they are at all full in their descriptions. But much better than these are well digested books about books, such as the one already referred to.* Such a volume may be had for a trifle, and in addition to its value for reference, it has the additional merit of furnishing its reader a comprehensive view of literature as it is, and a well digested index to the subject he has in hand. The reader who shall give a day or two to such a volume will learn what every person must know more or less thoroughly to be

* The Best Reading.

well informed—namely, what books each author has given to the world; who is the author of each of the books we hear spoken of in conversation; to what class of literature each belongs; of what it treats, and what is the position assigned to it in literature by the best of our critics.

He will learn, in short, the outside of literature,—he will have before him an excellent map of the literary world, and will gain from it a valuable knowledge of those parts of it over which he cannot travel in person.

But it is not enough that he shall know this much of the books which he cannot hope to read. There are very many of the books that we have no time to read, about which we need to know something more than their titles and similar matters, and this is most readily accomplished by the reading of intelligent criticism.

Of some books an elaborate review is worth reading, but these, for the most part, are books which must themselves be read by every person who makes any effort to keep up with current literature, and so the briefer notices given in our monthly magazines of the better class, and even those which we find in the great metropolitan dailies, are of very great value as furnishing the information we need about the books which we have no time to read, but concerning which every intelligent man needs to know something.

DANGEROUS READING.

Almost any kind of reading matter, if read to the exclusion of everything else, becomes dangerous. It is never well to cultivate a one-sided mental habit. An intellectual diet, consisting only of poetry, even though

the poetry be always of the best, is quite as bad as a physical feeding on nothing but pastry. Dyspepsia, in physical form, is not worse than its intellectual counterpart.

This particular danger is all the greater for the reason that people whose tastes lead them to confine their reading largely to a single kind of literature, are always people whose minds need balancing in precisely the opposite direction. A taste so strong for poetry, or other ideal literature, that its possessor cares for nothing else, indicates a pressing necessity for the cultivation of the more practical faculties. And so it is with every other such leaning.

The student may very properly entertain preferences of this kind, and he is safe enough in allowing them to lead him to a reasonable extent, but he should at all events take pains to preserve the balance which he has cultivated, and whenever he finds his taste leading him into excess in one direction, it is his business at once to restrain and correct it by studies of an opposite character.

I have already advised the cultivation and development of strong points in every case, but strong points become points of weakness if they are allowed to control the whole man.

A little novel-reading may be absolutely necessary to the intellectual equilibrium of a metaphysical or mathematical enthusiast, while there are men and women in whom the reading of fiction has destroyed all that there ever was in them of intellectual vigor, simply because their tendencies and tastes were all in one direction, and no care was taken to turn them in any other.

I cannot too strongly impress upon the student the

necessity of guarding himself against all such dangers. He should know himself as thoroughly as possible, that he may know and supply his own intellectual wants; but above all, he should see to it that his reading is varied in its character, and that his changes of intellectual food are not left to caprice or chance. He should read some novels, certainly; a good deal of poetry, without doubt; some speculative literature; a good deal of biography, and more of history. If any one class of books please him above the rest, he will certainly read enough of that, but he should take good care that its precise opposite receives a full share of attention.

There is one other danger which comes to every reader. We must all read the newspapers, of course; but to read even one large paper entirely through every day requires a considerable expenditure of time. Now the truth is, that unless one reads newspapers in the way of business, there is very little in one that any one person needs to read. There may be nothing in the paper that should be omitted from it—nothing which will not meet the wants of some reader; but at the same time the parts that any single individual needs more than he needs the time it would take to read them, are very few and very small. Every reader should learn to find these readily, and he should read nothing else in the paper.

The head-lines and the typographical peculiarities of the several parts will enable an attentive reader to see at a glance what he wants and can afford to read; but curiosity or carelessness leads nearly all of us to read vastly more of our newspapers than this, to the great wasting of very valuable time. A little care will ena-

ble the student to avoid this, and avoid it he must, if he would economize his time properly.

In the reading of magazines and literary papers there is a similar danger, though it exists in much smaller degree, inasmuch as these are more strictly literary in their character, and have therefore no occasion to supply matter of no use to the majority of readers.

A SCHEDULE OF READING-MATTER.

I have already said that set courses of reading are usually valueless, and that it is no part of my purpose to supply anything of the kind. But in carrying out the plan I have suggested, of properly apportioning the different kinds of reading, it will be convenient for the student to keep in mind some distinct classification of literature, more or less elaborate, according to circumstances

In a general way, the following will answer very well as a basis for such a classification as will be found necessary :

History,	Physical Science,
Biography,	Poetry,
Philosophy,	Fiction,
Travels and Explorations,	Specialties : (*Theology, Law, anything professional.*)

The comparative value and importance of these several classes of literature is an indeterminate one, and it varies with the wants, the temperament, the capabilities, and the circumstances of each student.

In a general way, where there are no circumstances making one of these more important than the others, and where the object is simply the improvement of the reader, some attention should be given to each, and the

bent of the reader will ordinarily indicate which should enter most largely into the course.

For most readers History (including philosophical essays on historical subjects) should form the larger part of the course, inasmuch as it supplies at once a vast stock of information, and an equally large share of culture.

NOVEL READING.

In point of fact, there will ordinarily be more fiction read than anything else. In our day we have stories and stories, and without entering into any discussion whatever of the merits of novel-reading, I may safely say that most people read too much fiction, and certainly a large part of the fictitious literature of the day—even after excluding all of the trash—is without any especial value to the reader, while the time its perusal occupies greatly limits the amount of other reading possible.

My advice to the student is, to read about half of Dickens's novels; one or two of George Eliot's; one or two of Bulwer's best; most of Scott's—these being history as much as anything else;—Vanity Fair, and one or two others of Thackeray's; a few of the older English novels of standard reputation, with one or two of the best of our American books of the sort.

There are many others absorbingly interesting and without positively objectionable characteristics of any kind, but life is too short for the reading even of all the *good* novels in print—particularly if the reader wishes to do anything else in the world.

Such a list as the one given above, will occupy as large a portion of time as most of us can afford to give

to novel-reading, and the man who has read all, or nearly all, the books mentioned, is as well read in the matter of novels as anybody needs to be, unless his reading is very extensive, in which case a larger amount of fiction would be well enough. A healthful proportion is what we should aim to maintain.

But these should not be read at the beginning of the course, nor should any considerable number of them be read consecutively. It is best first to form a taste for something less exciting, and to avoid impairing that taste afterwards, by an injudicious amount of novel-reading at any one time.

THE READING OF HISTORY.

I have before me, as I write, a letter from a young man who says that his education thus far has been mainly self-conducted, and that having completed his text-book study, he wishes now to become a well-read man. To this end he understands that he must know something of history, and he writes to ascertain how much of history is necessary, "for," continues the letter, "I want to read just as little of dry chronicles as I can get on with."

Now the case of this young man is not an exceptional one by any means. He will never be even a tolerably well-informed person, as a matter of course, unless his ideas shall undergo a radical change, which is hardly probable. But there are two or three mistakes which he makes in common with many other people, and his case furnishes me an opportunity to correct them in the minds of more hopeful students.

In the first place it is no less a mistake to suppose that intelligence may be gotten by an indolent, shirking

system of reading, than to imagine that text-books will yield their treasures to the careless and listless student. The man who begins a course of reading with the wish to make it as meagre as possible, is not likely ever to make it of any great value to himself. It is only those who hunger after information that manage to digest it, and the desire and the purpose must be stronger than they seem to be in the mind of my correspondent, before there can be reasonable hope that they will bring about anything like satisfactory results.

There are cases in which the student feels, at first, but little pleasure in reading, but resolutely pursues his course from a strong desire to profit by his labor, and to such the pleasure soon comes to strengthen the purpose. But when the purpose itself is weak, and no pleasure is felt in the self-imposed task, a vague wish to be well informed, or to appear so, is not sufficient to keep the man at his work, and he might almost as well abandon the purpose in the outset.

A second error is the assumption that history is a matter of dry chronicling. It is a series of chronicles, of course, but so is every novel, for that matter. The events in the one case are real, and in the other imaginary, and this far history has the advantage. There is less of unity in history than in fiction, but as a whole, the former is no less startlingly dramatic than the latter, and to a healthful taste there is quite as much of absorbing interest in true stories of men's deeds as in fictitious ones.

While we are upon the subject of historical reading, let me add a few suggestions which may be of service.

Compends of history are almost worthless as original reading. To bring them within the required limits it

becomes necessary to eliminate nearly everything of value from the narration, and that which is left is but the merest skeleton of the tale they are intended to tell. It is not possible to learn history from books of this sort, and as histories they are worthless. They are to history just what epitomes of English literature are to English literature in its fullness, and properly used they have their value, just as these have theirs in their proper spheres.

It is a very good plan, after the student has completed an extended course of history, either general or special, to take up an abridgment or brief compend, covering the same ground. By this means the course which has been read will be easily reviewed, and the student will have at a single glance a comprehensive view of the whole course over which he has travelled. This is the use, and almost the only good use to which brief historical compends can be put.

I have already pointed out the necessity of reading both sides in history, as in everything else. I must also caution the student against a habit of accepting authority on historical matters unquestioningly.

Passion, prejudice, circumstances of all kinds, enter largely into the telling of the world's story, and he who would get at the truth must weigh carefully the probabilities in every doubtful case, and make due allowance for all these in making up his opinions.

But aside from the fact that such a practice is necessary to the discovery of truth, it is even more important as a habit of mind tending to healthful culture. It exercises the judgment and it cultivates a wholesome habit of doubting and investigating, the value of which can hardly be over-estimated.

In reading history it is well to remember that speculative essays upon historical subjects are quite as important a part of history as the narrative itself, and it is an excellent plan to follow every course of history proper with the best essays to be had upon the events or the men involved.

These sometimes take the shape of biographies—sometimes they appear as book reviews, and sometimes they come to us professing to be just what they are. But whatever their shape, they are peculiarly valuable. They furnish at once a brief review of the history read, and a thoughtful commentary upon it.

POETRY.

In reading poetry, the especial purpose, aside from amusement, is the cultivation of æsthetic feeling. To cultivate this worthily it is necessary that everything be avoided which will tend to warp the taste or to make it one-sided. To a great extent we read poetry only for the sake of the amusement it affords, and to that extent our selection is dictated by our tastes, but it is well enough to let the judgment have some control even here. I have known ill results to follow from the too exclusive reading of the works of a single poet or a single school of poets, and this is the fault against which I would especially caution the reader.

We need nothing so much as catholicity, both of opinion and taste, and this can be secured only by careful culture.

Especially is this true in matters of literary taste. We not only need to know what different poets have written, and their several characteristics, but we need, quite as imperatively, to so far cultivate a catholicity of

taste that we can appreciate the merits and the beauties of each. Our reading of poetry, whether it be a limited or an extensive one, should in any event embrace as large a variety as possible. There are people who appreciate Byron, and Scott, and Shelley, or Pope, and Dryden, and there are others who love Wordsworth, and Longfellow, and Tennyson. Very much smaller is the class of people who love and appreciate all of these and others, but these few are they who see more of beauty in each than the special lovers of each will ever see there, and who are able to set down every singer at his proper valuation.

With this sole caution, I say to the reader, follow the bent of your own taste in the matter of poetry, just as you would in regard to pictures, or any other creations of art. Let your taste be your chief guide in matters of taste, but take care to cultivate it judiciously, in order that it may be a safe and competent guide.

BIOGRAPHY, ETC.

Biography, Travels, Explorations, and similar matters are, to a great extent, but history in another form. The story of a leading man's life is the story of his times. Travels and explorations usually contribute to history, past or present, more than to anything else, and the accounts given of them by the traveller are histories in themselves.

In a general way, what has been said in regard to the study of history applies equally to the reading of books of this sort, except that it should be remembered that biographies and books of travel are often slices of history cut uncommonly thick. If we read an extended biography of any but the very foremost man of his

age, we may be devoting to a small segment of the world's history an amount of time wholly out of proportion to its relative importance. And the same thing is true of other books of this class.

As a rule, therefore, it is best to avoid merely historical biographies as a part of historical reading where their subject was not pre-eminently the foremost man of his age—where his story is not wholly the story of his time in some respect.

There is another trouble with biographies, which should be borne constantly in mind while they are in reading, and that is, that the personal element enters very largely into their composition. Men who write biographies do so, very generally, for the purpose of exalting or depreciating the man who forms the subject of their work, or to do the same thing for some measure with which his life was in some way interwoven. They write the man's life because they greatly admire or particularly detest him or his theories, or because they wish to advance some particular end, or for some other reason equally fatal to fairness. Whether conscious of it or not, the writers of this kind of biographies almost always occupy the position of an advocate rather than that of a judge, and this is not the way in which history should be written.

There are, of course, exceptions to this, but they are the exceptions merely, and not the rule, and what I would urge upon the student is the necessity of taking care to give this personal element its full weight in determining the value of conclusions drawn from books of this class.

On the other hand, however, it must be remembered that biography is, to very many people, the most at-

tractive form in which history can be put, and hence its usefulness, as mere history, is very great.

Again, there are biographies not historical—stories of the lives of men whose lives form no part of public history. These are close studies of human development, and form an admirable department of reading by themselves. To these, what I have said of merely historical biography does not apply at all, and to some extent all written lives of individual men partake of this excellent quality, when the work is at all well done, and from this point of view biography has a value wholly apart from its worth as history.

DICTIONARIES AS READING-MATTER.

The book must be a very bad, or an extremely poor one, which has nothing in it worth reading, when there is nothing better at hand.

There are so many books which we need to read and cannot for want of time, that very many good ones must be left unread, so that we may have time for the ones most imperatively necessary to us. Comparatively there are vast numbers of books not worth the reading,—positively there are very few, except the trashy ones known as sensational novels.

That is to say, there are very few books which are not well worth the reading when there are no better ones at hand, and so there will come times to every one of us when we can take up and read books which we should never select where there is room for selection, but which are in themselves worth the reading. It is a good rule never to be caught anywhere without a good supply of reading-matter, but very few of us live strictly up to it. The next best thing is to know how

to make the most of such literature as we can get when our choice is a very limited one under stress of circumstance.

I remember a strongly illustrative case in point. I spent nearly a week once in a little village in Tennessee, during a rainy season, when walking out of doors was simply out of the question. The only books to be had at all were the Children of the Abbey, Tupper's Proverbial Philosophy, and about one half of an old Johnson's Dictionary.

Doubtless I might have got something out of Tupper, and possibly a vague shadow of amusement out of the Children of the Abbey, but the old Dictionary was by odds the most promising of the three, and I read it for five consecutive days, making some curious word-studies in which I became greatly interested. From that day to this, I have never been at a loss for something to read in any house containing a dictionary, and I strongly commend all dictionaries and books of that kind as reading matter of a very interesting and instructive character. Their value as books of reference is not their only value by any means, even if this be their chief use. It will *pay* to go through an unabridged Webster or Worcester once or twice at least during a lifetime, not reading everything in it by any means, but picking out here and there the things one wants.

Still more interesting is a biographical dictionary, or the dictionary of some technical specialty, if the specialty be one in which the reader feels an interest, and a good encyclopedia is always a treasure. Not that anybody should think of reading any one of these regularly through, or taking it up as set task-work. But there are odd times when we have nothing else at

hand, or when we care for nothing else for the moment, and at such times one cannot do better than to turn the leaves of a good dictionary, or encyclopedia, in search of something which will strike the fancy.

CHAPTER IX.

HOW TO STUDY AND READ TO THE BEST ADVANTAGE.

A good many of the suggestions I shall give in this concluding chapter follow as corollaries from the teachings already given. Some of them are but recapitulations of the suggestions scattered through former chapters ; others have found no place there.

They are grouped together here for the sake of the student's convenience, and because they constitute a fitting conclusion to my little book.

A PRACTICAL EDUCATION.

The end to be aimed at in every case should, of course, be the securing of as wide and perfect and complete a culture as possible, and the acquisition of as much information as the limits of time and opportunity will allow.

We have already seen that the perfect, ideal education is that which completely and perfectly develops the man, bringing all his faculties into full play, and supplying each with all the information necessary to its very best work.

Practically the best education to be secured is one which falls far short of this, and the best educated peo-

ple we have are those who know some one thing thoroughly, and have a general acquaintance with others. Practically, this should be the object aimed at by every student, and it should constitute the basis of all his work. But in projecting and pursuing a course of study and reading with this end in view, there is always the danger of giving to the one thing too great a share of attention, and so failing to accomplish the equally important purpose of making one's self acquainted generally with other branches of human knowledge. This danger comes to every student, and it cannot be too carefully avoided.

ECONOMY OF TIME.

Every student whose purpose is in any way a worthy one, will find his time far less abundant than he could wish, and therefore it becomes especially necessary that he shall economize it carefully; and there are many ways in which this may be done.

Whenever a book is taken up, whether for study as a text-book or only for reading, the purpose it is to serve and the limits of its capacity to serve that purpose, should be distinctly recognized. The student should ask himself—"Why do I want this book? What can it give me? How much of it is worth more to me than the time I must give to its reading?" He should always remember that no book yields anything gratis; that he pays, in the coin of precious time, for everything he gets out of books, and that it is the worst kind of extravagance to read any book, or any part of any book, which does not yield to the reader something of more value to him than is the time given to the

reading. We cannot afford to read even good books when there are better or more necessary ones awaiting our attention. And this is equally true of parts of books. By a little attention to this the student will save a great deal of time. When he shall have read as much of a book as he can afford to read, let him drop it at once, in order that he may have time for others.

A great deal of time is wasted, too, by a habit of inattention, and the student should take the utmost care to avoid the formation of such a habit, or to cure it if it is already formed. It is easy enough to do this, if only the purpose be strong enough. You have only to begin with very short terms of study, letting them be as frequent in their recurrence as possible. Whenever your attention shall flag, make an effort to keep it fixed, and the moment you shall find yourself unable to control it longer, cease to study. Take a walk, work in your garden, or do something else which will rest your mind, and after a brief period of physical exertion, return to your studies. With every return you will be able to fix your attention for a longer period than before, and your habit will soon be cured.

It is always bad to go on reading when the mind is occupied with something else. Such a practice fixes upon the mind and the eye a habit of separate action, which soon becomes chronic, and the habit is fatal to profitable reading.

WHAT TO DO WITH THE MEMORY.

There is a good deal of nonsense talked, concerning the cultivation of the memory, and a good deal of harm done in attempts to develop it abnormally, as well as

in making a misuse of it in the study of matters with the real learning of which it has very little to do.

Paradoxical as it may seem, prodigious memories are by no means very rare. "Lightning calculators" have been known almost as long as arithmetic, although they have rarely been men who really knew arithmetic, marvellous as their power of conjuring with figures has always appeared to be to the gaping crowd. The world has always had people whose memories were next to marvellous in their extent and power, and we always shall have them so long as the fact shall remain that almost any person may, if he will, make his memory receive and retain everything, or nearly everything, given to it.

There is nothing easier than the development of a prodigious memory, and there is no faculty of the mind so little worthy of such extreme cultivation.

I once knew a lecturer who vaunted his memory and its performances, as the most marvellous thing with which he was acquainted. He told his audiences how he could not only repeat the Bible from beginning to end, but also give the chapter and verse of any portion if repeated in his presence. He could repeat, also, every conceivable detail of minute geographical fact, and do half a hundred other utterly useless things.

The man was a fool; but any person of good ordinary capacity can learn all that he learned, by giving as he did a lifetime to the task. The trouble is that the price is worth so much more than the commodity.

But while all this is true, it is also true that a good, trustworthy memory is of very great service, and such a memory is well worth cultivating, within reasonable limits.

HOW TO CULTIVATE THE MEMORY.

If we wish to develop the muscles of any particular part of our bodies, we proceed to exercise those muscles moderately and regularly. It is only by exercise that we can hope to strengthen and improve them.

With the faculties of the mind we do precisely the same thing. If we wish to reason closely and accurately, we must constantly exercise the reasoning faculties. If we wish to develop the mathematical powers of our minds, we must make daily use of mathematical exercises. Now, in this respect, the memory does not differ from the other intellectual faculties, except that its proper cultivation is rather easier than that of most others.

To secure a good memory, therefore, it is only necessary that the student shall exercise it systematically, and we are all doing this every day in a greater or less degree.

We must, however, avoid things which tend to impair the faculty, of which there are several worthy of mention.

THINGS THAT IMPAIR THE MEMORY

Inattention is the first and greatest cause of bad memories, and there was a deal of force in Lord Byron's remark, that he had forgotten his Latin and Greek, "if a man may be said to have forgotten that which he never remembered."

The way in which this habit of inattention is most commonly cultivated is in the careless reading of matters of no importance,—newspaper paragraphs, items,

detached thoughts,—anything which makes no impression on the reader. The reading of such things generates a habit of careless, inattentive reading which is often fatal to anything like a good memory.

The same is true of many other things, which will readily suggest themselves to the reader, whose rule it should be, if his memory be defective, never to do anything carelessly or inattentively — even though the thing done be in itself unworthy of a better doing.

Many people find that while they remember some things perfectly, they are apt to forget just the ones they most want to remember. This arises in a large degree from the total absence of system which is so common in matters of memory. Even people who carefully classify and arrange their learning for all other purposes often omit wholly to do this for the memory, reading and studying laboriously, but leaving it altogether to chance what things acquired from the reading and the study shall be remembered, and what forgotten. That this is the common practice I think there can be no doubt, but it is certainly a singularly bad one.

We all know that we can remember any given thing by "fixing it in the memory" as the phrase has it,—that is to say, we are all conscious that the memory may be greatly aided by the formation of a *deliberate purpose* to remember. Now it is clearly impossible that we shall make such a deliberate effort for the retention of every fact and every principle we meet in our study, reading and observation, and the obvious conclusion is that we should make some classification of these facts and principles, so that we may select those which are most important and make an especial effort to retain

them. A good classification for this purpose is the following :

To be remembered.

To be held ready for reference when wanted.

Not wanted further.

Under the first head should come all those things which it is not worth while to remember in detail ; under the second, all those which we need only to remember generally, while we remember just where they may be found when wanted in detail ; under the third, of course, should come everything not worth a special effort of the memory, though many of them will be useful, if remembered without such special effort.

A very fruitful source of failure in attempts to cultivate the memory is the common mistake of confounding the husk with the grain, and learning to retain words rather than the ideas they express. There are many people who readily commit the words of a book to memory whenever they choose, but who after reading a volume find it very difficult to remember anything of its contents, except the passages which have been memorized absolutely. Such memories are provokingly worthless, and yet there are teachers in plenty who take pains to cultivate just such in their pupils.

As a rule, the exact phraseology of a book is never worth remembering, either in whole or in considerable part, and ordinarily it is a waste of time to commit words to memory ; but the mental habit of the student is a very defective one if he fails to retain, in a general way, the ideas of every book read.

In this, as in every other case, it is the thoughts and not the mere words—the kernels and not the shells—that are wanted, and in cultivating the memory, the

student needs to look sharply to his processes, lest he cultivate it in the wrong direction. Let him remember that while every faculty is developed by exercise, each is developed strongly in the particular direction in which the exercise points, and that it is therefore especially requisite that he shall make the exercise of his memory a healthful one in kind as well as in amount.

MEMORANDUM BOOKS, ETC.

Memorandum books and other mechanical contrivances are often useful and sometimes very necessary, but they are susceptible of abuse and capable of working great injury to the memory they are meant to serve. When anything is to be remembered it is so convenient to jot down a note of it, that the plan is often resorted to where the memory itself should be trusted, and the habit of relying upon memoranda rather than upon the memory itself, is often fatal to the proper development of that faculty.

In giving a special caution thus against the abuse of memorandum books, I do so only because these are the commonest forms of artificial aids to memory, but what I say of these is equally true of every other device of the kind, and there are many of them in use. The rule should be the same in all cases, and it should be to use mechanical aids as little as possible, and to carefully observe their effects upon the memory, in order that they may not be allowed to sap it unawares.

I have found it a good plan in my own case, to make memoranda *aids* to memory, rather than substitutes for it. Let me explain what I mean a little more fully. When I particularly wish to remember any isolated fact or other thing, I have no difficulty in doing so, by

simply determining that I will. But when I have to collect and remember a considerable number of things for future classification and use, (as, for instance, when collecting and arranging in my mind the materials for an essay or a book,) the unaided memory is not sufficient, and so a resort to memorandum books must be had. In these I jot down brief notes of the things I wish to use, making a rude classification of them as they occur to me from day to day. When this is done I lay the note-books away, and have no occasion whatever to refer to the memoranda in using the material collected. The act of making a written note of anything serves to fix the thing in my memory, and ordinarily I have no further use for the note after it is once made.

Now, I do not put this forward as a plan for others' following. Perhaps to most of my readers my contrivances of this sort would be worthless, while others which would work well with them would be of no service to me. In all such matters every man is and must be a law unto himself, and in giving my own plan to the reader I offer it only as a suggestion which may possibly point the way to some device of his own which will similarly serve his purpose.

And just here a general caution is necessary against all attempts to adopt other people's plans in matters of this and like sorts. Nearly all young people try to follow some other person's lead in such matters, and in doing so they almost always fail because the processes of different minds are different.

The only safe course is to let the working rules of other people serve as suggestions for processes adapted to your own wants and your own peculiarities.

And whatever your processes of intellectual work may be, above everything else avoid making your rules or those of other people your masters. They are of service only while they serve, and the moment they assume control over the man, they become tyrants of a particularly objectionable sort.

MECHANICAL MEMORY.

The student will almost certainly meet, sooner or later, with systems of mechanical memory,—elaborate contrivances by which to remember mechanically whatever one wishes to remember without any cultivation of the faculty involved. These systems often contain a few good suggestions for use in the comparatively limited number of cases in which it is possible and desirable to remember things mechanically ; but as systems they are worthless, always, of necessity, and to make any attempt to master one of them is to simply throw away time. They are worthless, in the first place, because of their very elaborateness, which makes it a more difficult task to master them than it would be to cultivate the memory itself to a far greater degree of precision than the systems can justly claim. In the second place, with all their seeming completeness, they usually fail just where they are needed most. Thirdly, it is generally more difficult to remember their devices for remembering things than it would be to remember the things themselves. But, after all, the chief difficulty with all these systems lies in the fact that they aim only at the recollection of words,—they deal only with the husks of knowledge, and hence are inherently unworthy.

HOW MUCH TO READ.

Students are often led to inquire how much they should read within a month or a year, and answers of all sorts have been given to the question.

In this as in other matters of a similar nature it is impossible to give an estimate worth anything, or one which will be even approximately correct in a majority of cases.

The general principle is, that we should not read more than we can digest; but what would be a surfeit for one intellect is wholly insufficient for the ordinary food of another. Moreover, it is difficult for the reader to discover just how perfectly or imperfectly he has assimilated his intellectual food.

Again, we may store the mind to-day with information to be digested long hence, and the fact that we have not yet made positive use of all that we have read is not proof that we have read too much.

In point of fact, very few people read too much. Most of us read far too little, and the student need have very little apprehension on the score of an intellectual surfeit. The appetite is in this case a pretty safe guide, and in a very large majority of cases it may be freely indulged, as to amount, without any kind of danger, if only the reading be of a proper sort.

WHEN TO READ.

"Is it best to have fixed times at which to read?" asks a young man in a letter now lying before me.

I answer Yes, and No.

It is certainly best to have fixed times for reading if,

without them, the reading is likely to be neglected to any considerable extent. It is best to have rules for your own guidance and control *if you need them.* Otherwise, certainly not.

It is no small part of education to learn to govern one's self, but that self-government which accomplishes its purpose with the smallest amount of law is best. Government is necessary in every case, but the freer it can have its subject the better it will be for him.

In all matters of this sort, therefore, the student should proceed as best he can, taking care first that his duties to himself in the matter of study and reading are fully and fairly performed, and secondly, that he remains as largely a free agent as is consistent with the accomplishment of this end. He should make rules for himself, and enforce them strictly too, if rules are necessary to him, but if he can perform all his duties to himself without limitations of this kind, it will be far better not to hedge himself about with self-imposed and unnecessary statutes.

THE PROPER TIME OF DAY FOR READING AND STUDY.

As to what is the proper time of day for intellectual work of any kind, opinions differ largely among people who have strong prejudices or preferences in the matter —each thinking that his own favorite time is in every way the best.

Probably habit has as much to do with it as anything else, in most cases ; and surrounding circumstances ordinarily determine the question for all of us.

Except that the health should be carefully guarded, the best possible rule, doubtless, is to do your reading

and studying when you can do it best—in the morning —at night—or at whatever other time you find to be the best in your own case.

It is important, however, to learn to read, to study and to write quite as well in the midst of interruptions as anywhere else. This anybody may learn to do with a little practice, and it is well worth the learning, even to people who have abundant and uninterrupted leisure.

THOUGHT STUDY.

During all our waking hours we are thinking of something. The moment we cease to think, we are asleep.

This fact is well enough known to everybody, but its lesson is not always learned. We go on thinking, thinking, thinking, but how many of us make a systematic effort to so control our thoughts as to make them of value to us?

When we walk in the streets, or ride in the cars, or do anything else which leaves our minds free, we are very apt to let them run on listlessly from one subject to another without care, and the result is that all our thinking—all this wearing labor of our brains produces nothing of any value to us, except it be by accident.

But this loss of intellectual labor is not the only ill result of allowing the thoughts to run riot among trivialities. We need to form habits of self-control. Such habits constitute at least half of culture, and their existence is absolutely necessary to the accomplishment of anything like satisfactory educational results. We must control our intellectual operations, if we would train our intellects to satisfactory and systematic activ-

ity, and there is nothing so fatal to such control as is this habit of loose, unguided, random thinking.

The mind must have rest, of course, but the rest comes from change and from sleep—not from uncontrolled and useless activity. For these reasons I strongly urge upon the student the habit of thought-study, as it is sometimes called. Let him always have some subject or other ready for consideration, and when nothing else offers, let him think about that, taking care that his thinking shall be systematic. Let him also cultivate the habit of self-control to such an extent that he may dismiss one subject and take up another at will. Then let him question everything about him for information and for culture. He will soon find that he can learn quite as much from men and things as from books.

As a rule, it is better that we should observe the men and the things about us, and think of them, than that we abstract ourselves, and hence it is best to keep the chosen subject in reserve so long as there are other things at hand to furnish food for thought. This habit of observing our surroundings and thinking about them furnishes us the very best possible object-lessons, and it is this very habit which has resulted in some of the greatest of human achievements. A very simple thing indeed, to furnish food for thought, is a tea-kettle lid, but because James Watt, when he saw it, thought about it, we have now our steam-engine, and this one man's habit of object-study advanced the civilization of the world incalculably. History is full of just such illustrations, and if we could always trace these things accurately, we should almost certainly find that every man who accomplishes anything of moment to himself

or to the world, owes his success to habits of this character.

There are other mental habits, some to be cultivated and some to be shunned, and these for the most part will suggest themselves and sufficiently indicate their natures to the student who takes himself in hand for training. One or two of them, however, may be mentioned

It is a good plan to doubt and investigate. Doubt is the forerunner of wisdom, and there is no worse habit of mind than that which prompts the easy acceptance of professed facts without proof. Authority is only good in so far as it is authority, and it should be accepted no farther. When I read in my chemistry that oxygen, hydrogen and carbon are elementary substances, the authority of the eminent chemist who tells me this is sufficient to convince me that this is a correct statement of the fact so far as the fact is understood by the chemists, but in holding myself ready to believe that all these substances may after all be compounds, and may ultimately be discovered to be such, I only do precisely what the chemists themselves do, and what they must of necessity do if they hope to make any new discoveries in their science. An unreasoning and dogmatic skepticism is as bad as an unreasoning credulity, but the habit of holding the mind open to conviction, and the habit of questioning everything for the sake of learning more about it are certainly exceedingly valuable ones.

Just here it is necessary to caution the reader against a bad habit into which a good many people fall, and that is the habit of accepting the statement of a puzzling fact and trying to account for it before as-

certaining that the fact is as it is stated, or in any other way beginning at the wrong end of an investigation.

There is an old story of a puzzling question as to why a living fish put into a vessel of water does not add to the weight of the whole. A good deal of speculation was had on the subject and many ingenious theories advanced by way of explanation. I believe it was Dr. Franklin who solved it, by first putting a living fish into a vessel of water to learn whether or not the assumption on which the question was based was a true one.

The Patent Office at Washington is full of failures which have consumed men's lives in the making, and in nine cases out of ten they are failures only because their inventors omitted to examine and verify the terms of the problems they tried to solve.

Every sleight of hand juggler depends upon this habit of men's minds for success in his deceptions. He sets people to puzzling over seeming facts which are not facts at all, and they, having begun at the wrong end of their investigations, might continue them till doomsday without coming a step nearer to the truth of which they are in search.

I have sometimes amused myself testing the question of how nearly universal this habit is. There is an absurdly simple trick with cards, which ought to deceive nobody, and yet it will deceive about eight people out of every ten, even when bunglingly performed. It is to arrange a pack of cards with the three spot of any suite at the bottom, and then to give the person with whom you are experimenting the ace of that suite, bidding him slip it into the pack as it lies, face downwards, on the

table. When he shall have done this, take up the pack, hold its face toward you, place your two thumbs over two of the three spots on the card next to you, blow, or say something, and exhibit the ace at the bottom of the pack. Every intelligent man must know that this card which he sees cannot possibly be the ace which he has just slipped into another place, and yet I have seen this simple trick performed over and over again in the presence of intelligent men and women, every one of whom would set about finding out *how* it was done, not one of them ever thinking to inquire whether or not it really was done.

Now, this is precisely what we all do every day to a greater or less extent, and as the habit greatly interferes with successful investigation in daily life, I have thought it worthy of notice in this place.

THE APPORTIONMENT OF TIME.

A great deal of advice has been wasted on the subject of apportionment of time between study, work, sleep, etc. We all remember Dr. Franklin's dictum on the subject, and we all see various modifications of it in the newspapers now and then.

Now if there were no other reason for saying that none of these prearranged schedules are worth anything, we should find amply sufficient justification for such a remark in the fact that hardly any two people agree as to the proportions to be maintained. Dr. Franklin thought six hours sleep per day enough for a man; but Mr. Beecher, who does quite as much work, probably, as Dr. Franklin did, sleeps, we are told, twelve hours out of twenty-four ordinarily, and never denies himself an additional "forty winks" when he wants them.

The fact seems to be that in this, as in everything else, men differ materially from each other. Some require more sleep than others, just as some require more food. Some can stand many hours of continuous labor, while others must have frequent spells of resting.

The only good rule in such a case is for each student to be a law unto himself. There is no extravagance so disastrous as the economy which denies to the student any needed sleep, whether the term allotted to perfect rest be four hours or twelve. Get all the sleep you need,—eat as much as you want,—and never continue your studies so long at a sitting as to leave yourself with a prostrated, worn-out feeling, as the result.

Of course I do not advise unlimited self-indulgence. We must be masters of ourselves, both in body and mind, if we would accomplish anything in life. Reason must be our guide, and reason should always hold supremacy over impulse. But if we wish to get the fullest measure of work out of an animal, we take care that he has rest enough and food enough to repair all waste. If we have machinery at work for us, we care for it similarly, in order that it may not wear out and cease to be of service. Now this is precisely what we must do with our bodies and minds. We must repair their waste places,—we must keep them in working order, and give them rest enough and food enough to keep up their strength, else they will inevitably break down, more or less entirely.

But in the matter of rest, a good deal of time may be saved by a little care. Change is in itself rest, and it often serves the purpose better than an attempted cessation from work would. When one is greatly interested in the work in hand, it is very often impossible to

dismiss it at once from the mind, and to simply quit the reading of a book is not always to rest from the reading. The subject is still in the mind, and the mind works at it quite as actively without the book as with it. It is always best, where this is the case, if rest is needed, to take up some book of a wholly different character for a while before ceasing to read entirely, so that the mind may be drawn away from the matter with which it is wearied.

There are many times, too, when it is not necessary to quit work at all—times when a simple change of work gives all the relief the mind needs, and a little attention to this fact will make it a great economizer of time.

HOW MANY STUDIES SHOULD BE CARRIED ON AT ONCE?

There is considerable difference of opinion as to the number of studies that should be pursued at once. In the colleges the number usually prescribed is from three to five, and I am certainly not prepared to say that five are too many or three too few; but I have known students to accomplish most excellent results by taking a single branch and pushing it through to the end of the course before taking up another. I have known others to carry on as many as nine separate studies at once, doing thoroughly well in all. The result in the end was as good in the one case as in the other.

Probably the safest plan is to accept the college custom as the proper rule in the matter, and to regard these cases as successful exceptions. Certainly, there are objections to either extreme, and the more moderate three, four or five studies furnish enough of variety to enable the student to rest by changing from one to

the other, while they do not weaken his attention by dividing it too much.

After all, the student cannot do better than attend to the teachings of the colleges in details of this character, and where their practice is at all uniform it will generally be found to represent the best plan of procedure even for the student without a master.

THE END

HINTS

FOR

HOME READING

A SERIES OF CHAPTERS ON BOOKS AND THEIR USE

BY

CHARLES DUDLEY WARNER, M. F. SWEETSER, F. B. PERKINS, CYRUS HAMLIN, HAMILTON W. MABIE, EDWARD EVERETT HALE, JOSEPH COOK, HENRY WARD BEECHER AND LYMAN ABBOTT

Edited with an Introduction by

LYMAN ABBOTT

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INTRODUCTION.

THE home ought no more to be without a library than without a dining room and kitchen. If you have but one room, and it is lighted by the great wood fire in the flaming fireplace, as Abraham Lincoln's was, do as Abraham Lincoln did: pick out one corner of your fireplace for a library, and use it. Every man ought to provide for the brain as well as for the stomach.

This does not require capital; there are now cheap editions of the best books; it only requires time and forecast. We write in a private library, and a fairly good one for working purposes, of three thousand and odd volumes; we began it twenty years ago, on a salary of $1,000 a year, with five books —a commentary in four volumes and a dictionary. The best libraries are not made; they grow.

In forming a library, if your means are small, do not buy what you can beg or borrow. Depend, as Joseph Cook does,

as many of the greatest authors have done, on public libraries —the District Library, the Lyceum, the Book Club, the Circulating Library—or on more fortunate friends. Buy only what you cannot borrow.

At first buy only books that you want immediately to read. Do not be deluded into buying books because they are classics, or cheap, or that you may get rid of an agent. One book read is worth a dozen books looked at. No book is possessed till it is read.

Reference books constitute an exception, and an important exception, to this rule. These are the foundations of a good library. The essential reference books are Webster's Dictionary—for the family use Webster is incomparably the best—a good atlas and a cyclopædia. Any school atlas will do (and a second-hand one can be had for almost nothing), though, if you are able to purchase it, a good atlas is much better; and best of all is a wise selection of atlases. There is no best cyclopædia; your choice must depend upon your resources, pecuniary and mental.

In purchasing books, exercise a choice in editions. The lowest priced books are not always the cheapest. Buy books of transient interest or minor importance—all novels, for example, and current books of travel—in cheap forms. On the other hand, histories, classics of all sorts, and generally all

permanent books, should be bought in good binding and good type. It takes well-seasoned lumber to make a good family library.

Have a place for your library. Respectable hanging-shelves can be bought in our cities and towns for a dollar and upward. A dollar spent in pine lumber, and a little mechanical skill, will make a larger and better one. Varnished pine is handsome enough for any parlor. A place for books will cry to be filled till it gets its prayer answered. Book-shelves preserve books. One shelf of books gathered together is a better library than twice the number scattered from attic to cellar.

Finally, a taste for reading is an essential pre-requisite to a useful library. A well is of no use if you never draw water from it. At the same time a good library in the household, accessible to all, from baby to grandmother, is one of the best influences with which to develop a taste for reading. Have no books so fine that they cannot be used. Have few or none under lock and key. Books were made for readers, not readers for books.

These articles, contributed by different writers, out of their own wide observation and life experience, were originally sought for the columns of *The Christian Union*, in the hope that they would conduce to the development of family libraries

in many homes. They are now gathered into one volume, with such modifications in form as were necessary to make a homogeneous volume, with the belief that in this permanent form they will continue to serve this mission yet more efficiently.

L. A.

22 WASHINGTON SQUARE, N. Y.

HINTS FOR HOME READING.

I.

WHAT THE PEOPLE READ.

By M. F. Sweetser.

CHARLES LAMB once said, in his quaint and delightful way, that he wished to ask a "grace before reading" more than a "grace before dinner." There never was a people so addicted to reading as our own, even amid the electric rush of western life, and ever fresh material is being prepared for their edification and amusement at the rate of seventy new books per day, besides uncounted millions of papers and magazines. Is this literary feast of such a character that we may ask a blessing upon it, or should we rather recite the Black Paternoster before partaking thereof?

"Read not the Times; read the Eternities," cried Thoreau, from his academic grove by Walden Pond. But it is essential that the citizen of a republic should read the Times also, and there is no duty which the average American discharges more

faithfully and zestfully. Every morning and evening millions of newspapers are flung off, hot from the roaring presses, to be eagerly perused in cars, shops and offices by all men who can read. Those papers are in chief demand which are alive and spicy, howbeit, unfortunately, these traits are often quite separable from sagacity and purity, and the Macaulay order of journalism is incompatible with paragraphing. When to the city dailies we add the rural weeklies, the story papers, the agricultural and specialist organs, and the great host of religious papers, the wonder rises how America can find time to attend to such a mass of ephemeral prints, and it seems that the larger part of our reading must be done outside of books. And so extensive is the purview of the modern newspaper, so various are the subjects of which it treats, and so highly trained (in many cases) are the editors, that the systematic reader thereof may readily become possessed of a fund of broad and available knowledge. Many men of high position, with great libraries in their houses, read almost nothing but newspapers, and from this source alone obtain copious resources for conversation on many subjects, so that they often appear more intelligent than the professional scholar. The dark side of the picture is found in the accounts of ghastly and demoralizing events whose details are given with such zest in some of the papers; and in the rollicking levity with which certain

of the later humorists treat the most sacred and serious subjects.

The magazines occupy a midway position between the newspapers and books, and contain literature which in many cases is not ephemeral. Their circulation is very large, and half-a-dozen have an aggregate sale of nearly half a million copies per month; while there are scores of others with large lists of subscribers. Profit, pleasure and instruction may be gained in reading the chief illustrated magazines, as well as the "Atlantic Monthly" and the Reviews; but most of the smaller periodicals are weak, meagre and platitudinous to the last degree.

The paramount position which fiction holds in the estimation of our reading public is definitely attested by a recent tabulation of the reports of more than a score of public libraries, which showed that sixty-eight per cent., or a little more than two-thirds of the books taken out, were novels. The great Public Library of Boston, with its 370,000 volumes, also reports that fully two-thirds of its issues are of this class, although the consoling statement is added that the ratio is much less than a few years ago, before the attractive catalogues of history, biography and travel were published. Various expedients have been suggested, with a view to reducing this great preponderance of light reading, but the evil is one which it is

difficult to ameliorate, at least by any system of library legislation. Another examination of the issues of the Boston Public Library shows that the ratio of the standard historical and social-life stories taken out, is to the merely sensational and visionary as thirteen to forty, or, in other words, that three-fourths of the novel-reading is given to the lowest attainable class of literature. Thus more than half of the volumes circulated by this great library, with all its safeguards and in one of the most enlightened communities of America, are vapid even if not vicious, and unimproving, if not absolutely harmful. There are advocates of the *panem et circenses* theory of government who find even this state of affairs encouraging, believing that it is a gain to the body politic to have the lower classes devoting that time to novel-reading which might otherwise be employed in more dangerous ways. The principle may be good under certain circumstances but the substitute is certainly a perilous one.

The Buckles and Leckys of the twentieth century may demonstrate the directness of the connection between the rise and development of the tramp-scourge and the contemporaneous flooding of the Republic with cheap and inflammatory literature, in whose pages honest industry is contemned and heroism is found only in a wild and roving life and an eager readiness to resort to physical violence. For years unscrupulous publish-

ers have been sowing dragons' teeth in the precious soil made fallow by the war epoch, and now the appalling harvest is springing up on every side.

The love of fictitious narrative is so strong and confirmed a trait of human character that great efforts should be made to render it in some way beneficial to society and the individual, or at least far different in its results from what it now threatens. Charles Reade prepared himself for his life-work by reading a novel a day for several years ; and now, out of the ripeness of his experience, proclaims that the only worthy end of fiction is to correct national and social abuses. Sir John Herschel recorded his conviction that the novel is "one of the most powerful engines of civilization ever invented." Canon Farrar recommends clergymen to read good novels in their leisure hours ; and a famous Oxford lecturer has advised all students in holy orders to peruse romances carefully, to enlarge their ideas and to give them social graces.

Anthony Trollope says that the novel has well-nigh succeeded to the sermon as a former of character, and Dr. Draper claims that the printing-press has superseded the pulpit. If this is quite true (and we fear that it is not altogether untrue) the world is in a bad way, and it behooves our *illuminati* to cease their interminable dissensions about ecclesiastical millinery and abstract theories and to take counsel as to the

remedy. If the high duties and principles of a true and noble life can no longer be as efficiently inculcated by essays and addresses as by extended parables and under disguise of romance, the new methods must be deeply studied and lovingly wrought out. The seeds which Richardson planted in England and Charles Brockden Brown in America, have developed into trees which overshadow the Anglo-Saxon race, and it cannot yet be seen whether their fruits shall be full of healing or of spiritual death. The unsullied purity and splendor of Scott are counteracted by the grossness of Fielding; the sin-scourging invectives of Thackeray by the hot poison of Laurence; the saintly purity of Macdonald by the inflamed suggestions of Ouida. Mr. Carker and Becky Sharp are as well known as Leatherstocking and Romola; and Claude Duval and Jack Shepard have a wider constituency than Adam Bede. Thackeray has somewhere said that all people with healthy literary appetites love novels, but the meaning of the objective word has been sadly perverted even since his day.

The most serious attack of unbeneficial literature is made upon the youth of the country, and its avenue of advance is through the flash newspaper and the low grade of cheap novel. The number of the former is legion, and their general uniform is illustrated by sensational head-lines and tawdry wood-cuts. No fewer than twenty-five of these papers are published

in New York alone, and it is estimated that they have three million readers every week. Many others are printed in other cities and count their added millions of readers. Besides the ordinary channels of the mails they are scattered broadcast through the country by the news companies, and their coarse illustrations are seen on every news-stand and in the stationery shops of the remotest hamlets, amid the pastoral innocence of the hill-country and the prairies. There is no other agency which is so effectually leavening the nation, for the flash paper penetrates to solitudes where even the circuit-rider never appears, and far beyond the blue-and-white signs of the telegraph companies.

A recent reviewer, after examining great numbers of these multiplying productions of a degraded press, writes that: "Nothing good can be said of them. They must be characterized as bad, worse, worst." The titles of the stories are viciously sensational and the situations are of the most impossible character, with high spice of hair-breadth adventure, prurient description and scandalous suggestion. Picturesqueness, delicacy, purity are all alien to these blood-curdling fictions, and the normal and healthy conditions of life are not considered. The heroes are those most regardless of long-settled social and natural laws, and their most notable achievements are triumphant revolts against the very nature of things. Their arma-

ment is complete and efficient, their combative skill is marvelous, and their language and habits are those of the slums. Occasionally a trite moralism or a plagiarized description is introduced as a foil, or as a contrast by which to heighten the color of the narrative, but the next chapter brings back the rattle of the frontier revolvers, the howls of the South Sea pirates and the vulgar-genteel dialogues of the buckram lords and ladies. And the reader ever draws a lengthening chain, for no sooner is Chincapin Dick brought to his reward in the last chapter of one story than Deadwood Jim enters the most interesting part of his brutal career in the same paper, and Calamity Jane appears on the scene in the first chapters of another serial.

And what is the result of all this mighty flood of unsavory literature? Evil, and evil, and evil again. The tranquil and industrious home life, with its sacred peace and unceasing blessings, is held up to scorn, and the ideal career is one of wild adventure and lawless force, ending in the acquisition of dazzling honors and delights. Appetites depraved by heredity are pampered and glutted in their unnatural tastes and during the most tender formative years, and the broad road to perdition is opened before the myriads of little feet. The uneventful life of school and shop, the working days and monotonous evenings, are set over against the dashing deeds and passionate joys of the putative heroes of the printed page, and appear

all the more dull and profitless by the comparison. Still worse and more pernicious lessons are taught to mere children, who become wise beyond their years, and are prepared for deadly dangers. The school-boy swaggers about his home, and talks the Bowery slang, and apes the inflections of the hoodlum, and then with his comrades endeavors to outrival the extraordinary ruffians who are set up as the heroes of his hidden reading. The instructors in some of our public schools keep a watch on the reading of their pupils, and report that the most unruly and rebellious boys are those who are addicted to the study of these fictions.

Many of the women of America find their light mental exhilaration in a similar manner in the pages of certain magazines professedly devoted to their amusement, and in the long lines of novels written by experts of the Southworth school. There is also a group of weekly papers working on the same line, and constantly purveying a light, frothy and turgid literature to its readers. This class of fiction is by far less dangerous than the stronger and more fiery forms which are placed before the sterner sex; and yet the imaginary conditions of life therein depicted and suppositious possibilities set forth, undoubtedly stimulate thoughts which result in terrible revolts against the laws of social safety.

Their is another class of publications, issued secretly from hidden press, whose pages are saturated with the most ter-

rible poison, and breathe out a fatal spiritual malaria wherever they fall. Therein the foulest morasses of sensualism are portrayed in the plainest language, appreciatively, skillfully and even enthusiastically, and the art of Hades is called in to illustrate the reeking pages. Carefully-sealed circulars are sent out broadcast, mainly to young people, of both sexes, giving lists of these books and their prices, and inviting orders. College and academy catalogues are often used as mediums for obtaining addresses, and the curiosity of the students is relied upon as a powerful assistance to the traffickers. The books are gloated over in secret, and are handed on from one youth to another, until whole neighborhoods are deeply infected with the virulent poison, and the gravest consequences ensue. If in the mysterious future beyond the tomb there is a torture more horrible and pitiless than any other, it must be reserved for the men who live by this infernal trade, and who lure innocent souls into the downward paths of perdition for the sake of a few dollars of gain. If the State may adjudge the penalty of death for those who slay the body, how much more should it exterminate, as vipers or scorpions, those who brutalize the youth and flower of the community, and thus prepare unnumbered woes for society. Of late years, the Society for the Suppression of Vice has dealt many vigorous and valiant blows at this hydra-headed monster, and has gained several important successes.

II.

WHY YOUNG PEOPLE READ TRASH.

By Charles Dudley Warner.

IT seems to be assumed, in all the discussions on Books and Reading, that reading is, like exercise in the open air, a good thing in itself; that there is some virtue in the mere act of reading without reference to the thing read. It is true that the art of reading is a necessity in our modern life; a person is at a great disadvantage without it; but I fancy that its value in the making of character, which is the great object of life, is a little over-estimated. Certainly, when a person has only learned how to read and not what to read, he is in great peril.

Reading as a means of cultivation, or as a pastime, we must remember, is altogether a modern habit, and it only prevails as a general habit in a few countries. The great majority of mankind get along without books and without newspapers, and

still exhibit most of the essential virtues and all the vices of reading communities. I knew a New England man who by diligence and shrewdness had amassed a good fortune and wore black broadcloth clothes every day; he understood men and human nature, and by his ability he obtained control of all the political movements of his region, and he used his influence exactly as the reading politicians used theirs; and yet he could not read a word, and could write nothing except his name—he did not write that elegantly, but it had a good appearance on a check. He was conspicuous in the community where he lived by reason of his literary deficiency, but he would not have been in ancient Greece nor in modern Italy. His education was that of the majority of successful men in past ages, and even in not remote times, when the clerkly accomplishments of reading and writing were considered effeminate. Most of our representatives at Washington can read—though some of them not to much purpose—and write, though they cannot all read their own writing, but many of them retain that old prejudice, not to say contempt, in regard to the lettered class which men of action have always felt. The first Napoleon was illiterate; he was an insatiable devourer of facts and ideas—that is, such as he could use for himself—and he did not value the medium through which he got them; he never resorted to books. He used the news-

papers, it is true, but exactly as he would use a squad of soldiers, or a battery, or a flag of defiance or of truce; he used them, as they have been used occasionally since his day, as a medium to lie in. But there was one good thing about Napoleon: he had a wholesome fear of literature and literary people; he was able to apprehend their ability to diffuse ideas which were hostile to his method of governing. Some of our public men resemble him in that.

I think the extent of the habit of reading is much overestimated even in reading countries. There is a large reading class in Germany, in China, in England, in America, in Iceland, and in the cities of France; outside of these countries and a few colonies reading is not indulged in. Of all these countries the United States is the land in which the habit of reading is most prevalent; and yet the most striking fact about our population is that so few of them read when most of them know how—I mean how to read to themselves, for so rare is the accomplishment of reading out aloud that we have to pay money to hear such performers on our language; they are rarer than fair piano players. Nearly everybody takes a daily snatch at the newspaper, at the summary of news or the telegraph columns, and the base-ball record, and occasionally persons follow for days the columns devoted to some singular accident or curious murder—even women have acquired the

art of deftly skimming the cream off the morning journal—but comparatively few of the entire population, even the educated, read books. Unless a book by some good luck becomes the fashion and is recommended in conversation, few see it; the number of people who originally seek out the readable book from their habit of craving it is very small. When a story becomes the fashion everybody reads it; but who is everybody? Why, a new novel is to have a "run" if ten thousand copies of it are published—ten thousand copies for forty millions of people. And there are books that "everybody" has read, and all the newspapers talk of, which have not got beyond the third or fourth thousand. The late Samuel Bowles once told me his experience. He had written his capital book on the Far West at the time of the Pacific railway excitement, when millions of people were eager for the information his book contained. Never did book seem to be in greater demand; it was sold in England as well as in America, and all the newspapers of both countries quoted from it and commented on it. Mr. Bowles said that he never met a person who had not read it—or who did not say he had read it, I forget which. And yet, he asked, how many copies do you suppose satisfied this enormous demand of everybody? Fifteen thousand filled the market.

We boast about the circulation of our newspapers. The

best of them are daily marvels of news, of information, of miscellaneous reading, of entertainment of all sorts. They are the cheapest things manufactured in modern days. Considering the capital in brains, industry and money put into every number, they are at their price the wonder of our civilization. And yet the most wonderful thing about them to me is the smallness of their circulation compared to the population. Take such a centre as New York, with a compact population of nearly two millions, and radiating lines of quick distribution that enable the newspapers within a few hours to reach millions more, and set against this the actual circulation of the three or four commanding journals. It is a mere bagatelle.

Still there are many newspapers, and a large proportion of the population sees one every day—that is, of the city population ; but the number of people who master the contents of a daily newspaper is not large. Readers pick out of them the items of business or amusement or politics that interest them. And it is hardly fair to credit our people with the habit of reading because they glance at the daily newspapers, or because in the country they are in the habit of spreading the excellent weeklies over their faces to keep the flies from disturbing their Sunday nap. I believe that the majority of business men read a book very rarely ; the majority of young men in business and in society I fancy read little—they do not give their evenings

to reading, and are not apt to take up a book unless it becomes the talk of society. People who spend a great deal of money on dress, on dinners, on amusement, would think it extravagant to buy a book, and if one is commended to them they will wait till they can borrow it or get it from the library. They do not hesitate two minutes about an ordinary two dollar dinner, but they will wait months to borrow a fifty cent book.

Those who have to deal with the education of the young get revealing glimpses into the state of culture in the households of our highly intelligent country. A professor in one of our leading colleges told me not long ago that a freshman came to him, after he had been recommending certain books in the literature class, and said he had never read a book in his life, This was literally true; except his text books he had never read a book; he had passed a fair examination, but of reading he knew no more than a Kaffir. Another professor in another college, also one of the highest in the country (both of these are Eastern colleges, in the centre of the best culture in America), told me more recently that a sophomore who stood well in his class came to ask him where he obtained certain facts which he referred to in the class-room. It came out that the young man never had read a book, didn't know what the sensation was, or how to set about it, and had not the faintest conception of literature. He had no notion of the

pleasure or profit to be got from reading; the world of books was absolutely beyond his imagination, and he could not conceive what people found in it. The professor at length induced him to read one of Scott's novels, but the boy found it a very tedious and uninteresting occupation. These two instances are extreme, but only in a degree; a taste for literature is not common, and ignorance of it is common even among college undergraduates.

And we might expect this to be the case where we see so few households in which reading is a habit. Here in New England there are books which have gradually accumulated in almost every house. Not seldom you will find a large number of books, standard works, books of the best literature; but in some of these houses which have book-shelves lined with the riches of all ages the questions you will most often hear are, "What shall I read?" "What is there to read?" Those who ask these questions are readers after a sort; they are probably the people who read the seventy per cent. of the books drawn from the circulating libraries, this seventy per cent. being the new novels.

Now, what I am coming at in this rambling paper is not proof that reading is a good thing, though much might be said in favor of the habit, and many people would not exchange it for all Mr. Vanderbilt's wealth. I am seeking one of the

reasons why the young who read at all read nothing but trash, as they are said to do. It is because their parents, or older persons about them, either have not the habit of reading or they also read trash. In such households as I have described, where the elders go about declaring that there is nothing to read, the children catch the tone and think there is nothing to read—that is, nothing except the latest story-book or the picture-paper. In the lower strata of society, where the mother has neither time nor inclination to read anything, and the father pores over the "Police Gazette," it is quite natural that his son should take the "Boy's Own" story paper about ruffians and burglars. The short of it is that the children in this country follow their elders. And I suspect that the vast majority of people care little for reading except as it furnishes them a smattering of news or gives them a temporary excitement.

III.

WHAT TO READ.

By Fred. B. Perkins.

As many persons, so many opinions," says the Latin proverb. Can there be a " Ten Comandments " for reading whose obvious universal simplicity and wisdom prove them by the mere statement ? Not yet, if at all. At present the question, " What shall we read ? " is almost as universal as the question, " What did the Sirens sing ? " The utmost that can well be attempted is to set down a few hints about the present state of things in the matter of reading—hints, if possible, not entirely useless to the scholar and, if possible, of some service to the average intelligent youth.

It is out of the question to read everything. There are some eight thousand newspapers and periodicals in the United States and Canada alone, from daily to quarterly, and almost every one of them has some good original writing in it. Take the

newspapers and periodicals of England and English America only, and their issues (not number of copies, but number of issues) are about 620,000 a year; all different, and a great many very valuable. To read these, at say 300 working days a year of ten hours each, you would have to turn off (roughly counting) 2,066 a day, or 207 an hour, or about three and a half a minute; about one in every eighteen seconds. Try, now, what you can do in eighteen seconds with a Saturday's *Daily Tribune*, triple sheet; or with one number of *The Christian Union*; or with this single short paper. Why, it would be a smart clerk who could unfold and lay out and cut the periodicals as fast as that, ready for you to read. And this without one book. The new books appear at say 25,000 volumes annually in Christendom, being about eight and a half volumes per hour for your ten hour day's work. We can't read everything.

Take another illustration of the extent of this "great and terrible wilderness." There have been printed cyclopædias almost ever since there was any printing. Now, in the scholastic period, the whole body of attainable learning was considered to lie within two courses of study, one of three branches, the other of four, often called the *trivium* and the *quadrivium*, and together composing "the seven liberal arts;" and there was an old Latin phrase that was used to describe a

complete scholar: "*Qui tria, qui septem, qui omne scibile novit*;" a man who knows the three, who knows the seven—in short, who knows all that is to be known. Now, the names of these two groups of studies will show how small was the range of mediæval learning. The *trivium*, "the three," were all concerned about language; viz., grammar, logic and rhetoric. The *quadrivium*, "the four," were music, arithmetic, geometry and astronomy. This was the whole of the "seven liberal arts;" the *forms* of thought, two departments of mathematics, one accomplishment, and the study of the heavens without the telescope. A cyclopædia of that day can be found in some large library or bibliographer's collection. It was one small quarto volume, not much larger than the school editions of Webster's Dictionary; and it would be quite within practicability to know it all by heart, as people have known the Bible. But look at the current edition of the Encyclopædia Britannica in twenty-two volumes, each of them at least five times as large as the whole Middle Age cyclopædia, and the whole, therefore, a hundred and ten times as large. Vain the attempt to commit *that* to memory. But, further, we have one separate cyclopædia of one branch of knowledge, "Ziemssen's Encyclopædia of Medical Science," in seventeen volumes about as large as those of the Encyclopædia Britannica; others of mechanical science almost as extensive. Again I say, we

can't read everything! Indeed, the very definition of a universal scholar has perforce changed. It is no longer a man who knows everything, but only *a man who knows how to look for everything;* and even such scholars are not to be found growing on every bush.

How, then, to select? What shall we read? Abundance of codes are to be found. One is about as good as another. Take, and follow, the first one you come across, only remembering to do so no longer than you can enjoy it. Each is commonly either a record of what the codifier has found to suit his individual character, or what he has speculated out, or has received, as necessarily best for all characters. Mr. Emerson's three rules, which I have had occasion to criticise in another place, seem to be of the former class. They are:

1. Never read any book that is not a year old.
2. Never read any but famed books.
3. Never read any books but what you like.

They are suggestions "How *not* to do it," of course; cautions rather than directions; but I repeat that if you add to each the clause "unless you like," they will do very well.

As to answering my own question, "What to read," it cannot be done in full in less than a volume. Within the scope of this article it will be best not to attempt giving lists of books,

analyses and estimates, but to suggest something to assist readers in making their own selections.

Read the great books, if you can (it is not every one who can do it the first time he tries); the great poets, historians, philosophers, even theologians. Anyone who has well read the masterpieces (to read *well* a masterpiece is very nearly to deliberately study it) has the principal material for a well furnished mind. The Bible; Homer, Virgil, Dante, Shakespeare, Milton, Goethe, Burns, Wordsworth, Hugo; Æschylus, Sophocles, Aristophanes, Molière; Herodotus, Thucydides, Livy, Sallust, Cæsar, Tacitus, Plutarch, Gibbon, Hallam; Plato, Aristotle, Bacon, Locke, Kant, Hamilton, Spencer—the "epoch-making" names as the Germans well call them; one who knows even moderately well the chief works of those men is already liberally educated—and boys and girls can enjoy them all, unless, perhaps, it be the final list of the philosophers. To understand such works as these is to understand human life and history in a broad, comprehensive way, as one understands the main slopes and great river-valleys of a country by mounting its highest peaks and looking abroad from them.

Read periodicals. Not idly and wastefully, but so as to keep up with the truth of the present as well as to learn the truth of the past. More and more, wise and good thoughts are published in these temporary forms. Anyone who has access to a

good number of them, and can acquire some faculty of selection, may choose say one article each out of six—or twenty—magazines and papers, that will keep him abreast of the progress of the age. A splendid feeling it is; like the swimmer's delight of riding forward on great waves in the sea. You see all the kingdoms of the world; and General Butler—who hates the newspapers—would say, shown them by the devil too. But it is not so. Much of the kindest and wisest thought of the day brightens newspaper columns and magazine pages. The important thing is to avoid being limited to one journal; to see as many as possible, and to learn to choose what is valuable and to skip the rest.

Amusing reading; use with moderation. Some persons dislike it as a child does rhubarb and magnesia. I knew an exceptionally intelligent editor, a lively, genial man, who always showed unfeigned distaste at fiction and the reading of it. Probably a book of travels, a biography, a natural history, would have been amusing to him. I know a lady of much culture, unusual excellence of character and high mental qualities, who finds Pickwick a monotonously stupid book. Such a condition of mind I cannot enter into. Select, therefore, for amusement something that amuses you: a comic almanac if it amuses you; and from that upward to the thoughts of Joubert or Pascal or Antoninus. But take this amusement as you

would take dancing, or fishing, or a nap in your chair : when you really properly may. At other times refrain from it. In work-time, work ; in rest-time, rest.

History is the backbone, natural science excepted. Unless historically, upon the basis of the utmost possible historical knowledge, there can be no thorough acquaintance with theology, philosophy, political economy, social conditions and affairs—in short, with all human life and progress and activity on earth ; though of course the routine drudgery of business and investigation in physics do not require it. Let the general rule, therefore, be to have all your reading and all your thinking upon the best and fullest body of historical knowledge that you can acquire. Read, to begin with, one good summary of universal history, and commit to memory a short chronology, at the rate of one or two facts and dates to a century ; read one good history of your own country (Hildreth's is the best one), and one of your own State and town, if such there be ; then a good history of England, then one of France, one of Germany, and so on, filling out the series as far as circumstances permit.

Employ the coöperative methods. Make full use of any library within reach, and join a book club if you can.

What has thus been said may be summed up in a few words :

The utmost possible reading is a very little out of an enormous mass.

Codes of rules for reading may be tried but must not be relied on.

The famous books are, above all, indispensable.

Judicious use of a selection of periodicals is highly desirable.

Mere amusement in reading should be only cautiously indulged.

Historical methods are the only sound ones in most lines of reading.

The coöperative methods should be used.

IV.

PLANS OF READING.

By Fred. B. Perkins.

HAVING dealt in a preceding paper—in an imperfect way enough, it is true—with some general notions about reading, my idea now is to suggest a course of reading. But the fact is that, in the general sense of the words, the thing cannot be done. There is no one course of reading which is the ideal best one any more than there exists Plato's ideal tree, being (he thought) *the* tree, in general or in the abstract; and he said it existed somewhere. As soon state exactly the one best career in life. A course of reading on all subjects? On what single class or single subject? For a youth or an adult? For one of defective education, of average, or of superior? For study, for information, for accomplishment or for pleasure?

It is true that a general course can be laid out, as was done

by Chancellor Kent and by many others; but the vast extent and dry aspect of such a course is a real Sahara to be scared away from; not a "paradise of dainty devices" to be attracted into. A general course can be laid out, but it cannot be followed, at least, not unless there is a great part of a life-time to give to it. Two points, therefore, I shall state to begin with: *First*, any general course of reading, long or short, will almost certainly be mainly historical; as, for instance, Pycroft's, the most sensibly handled of any of the sort in English; where his historical part (including biography and collaterals) fills nearly five-sixths of his whole book. And, *second*, partial courses within the limits of some period in time, or on some definitely limited subject of research, or within some distinct lines of acquirement, can always be made interesting and profitable, and can be followed. One of two such courses, will show, I think, very easily, what I say cannot be done, and what can be.

Suppose, then, first, a young farmer, merchant or mechanic, with a common school education and perhaps a year or two of academy besides, whose object in reading is not merely to do some reading, not merely to "improve his mind," but to do a better, because more definitely practicable, thing, something well worthy of manly ambition and manly thought—we will say, to give himself a competent education as a voter or

American sovereign. European sovereigns are most carefully and elaborately trained for their profession—and so ought ours to be.

For such a purpose I know no better first book than that plain, dignified and powerful old-fashioned narrative, Marshall's "Life of Washington." The great and upright lawyer's simple and strong account of the great and upright general and ruler's life is full of high and healthy lessons. At the end, read Washington's farewell address twice. And then read, if it can be done with pleasure, or even without too much fatigue, "The Federalist." That monumental exposition of the very bones and vitals and heartstrings of our national organization is not obsolete yet, and will not be very soon; and, while of the highest importance always, it is especially so at this moment. I wish no man could vote next year who could not pass a fair examination in "The Federalist." Still, if this massive structure of systematic reasoning is found too hard, put it by for some later year. I can hardly imagine a voter of any natural goodness of character casting a careless or unprincipled vote after a careful reading of Marshall. If Marshall's "Life of Washington" cannot be got take Irving's.

Lives of great men are vivifying centres of historic knowledge. Using the law of contrast, take now "Plutarch's Lives" and read them, and consider, as you go on, the differences be-

tween an ancient heathen and a modern Christian great man. And as you closed Washington's Life with his farewell address, close the series of Plutarch's heroes with a thoughtful reading —if you can find it interesting enough—of the "Thoughts of the Emperor Marcus Aurelius Antoninus." These two works will show you the best things that the heathens could do or think—Plutarch is action, Antoninus is morality.

Follow this somewhat pictorial method of beginning with a short course of history intended to present the progress of civilization and to give materials for a general view of humanity as a body, as the previous books were meant to exhibit noble individual and political and moral ideas. First comes Grote's "Greece;" and, if Finlay's is accessible (it is too little known), read that. These two books give an excellent and unbroken account of Grecian history from the mythological times down to and through the Greek Revolution. If Grote's eight volumes and Finlay's seven are too much, substitute Smith continued by Felton, which comes down to 1855 in one volume. Next, Mommsen's "Rome," and then Gibbon's "Decline and Fall," which do, after a fashion, for Rome what Grote and Finlay do for Greece. And if these are too long (together ten or twelve volumes), substitute Liddell's, Lord's, or Smith's single volume. For the Middle Ages read Hallam; and if that is not to be had, Robertson's "View of

Europe in the Middle Ages " will do very well, and so will Green's " History of the Middle Ages ;" and when the history is thus gone over read Froissart's " Chronicles " for a wonderfully striking and life-like contemporary account. Now take Russell's or Dyer's " Modern Europe," then Alison's (1789 to 1852) ; always remembering that Alison is distinctly a Tory (aristocratic and anti-republican) writer. Having thus secured a connected view of the main story of human progress, narrow the scope and complete the study of this historical course by a few books on England and our own country. Green's " History of the English People " (the second enlarged edition) is perhaps the best of the short histories ; if there is time for a longer one read Knight's " Popular History," eight volumes ; and follow this with Stubbs' " Constitutional History of England," if you do not find it too tough ; this is a very instructive book, but very solid, too. Read, for enjoyment at least as much as for instruction, Macaulay's history, which (with a preliminary sketch) covers the period from 1685 to 1702 (James II and William III). For the period from William III to the end of our Revolutionary war read Lord Mahon's (afterward Earl Stanhope) history. In like manner as Macaulay and Mahon give repeated and more detailed accounts of interesting periods, it will be useful to read Miss Martineau's " History of the Peace," following on

Alison's account of the Napoleonic wars, and very opposite to him in spirit, covering the time from 1800 to 1854.

Having thus viewed, though briefly, mankind in social progress from the dawn of history to the present generation, and then reviewed more closely that particular nation whose blood and manners and institutions, more than any other, we inherit, it remains to study our own nation, with whose greatest historic figure we began. Hildreth's history (6 vols. 8vo.) is the best; it comes down to 1820; but it is dry. Bryant's (so-called) will do reasonably well; it is to have one more volume yet—four large octavos in all; and Ollier's, known as Cassell's, is also a fairly good book. Indeed, any one of the one-volume high-school histories—Willard's, Wilson's, Quackenboss'—has more in it than any ordinary person can remember. And now I would have "The Federalist," if it proved impregnable at first, tried it again, and I would follow it with Dr. Von Holst's "Constitutional History of the United States." Then I would have my young man read the history of his own State—there is one, sometimes good and sometimes not so good, for almost all of them—and the history of his own town or city, if there is one, and, lastly, the Constitution of his own State, and the municipal ordinances of his town or city, if any; and I believe that young man will make an intelligent, judicious and useful voter; and, besides

that, it will be very strange if during this course of reading he has not noted a good many questions on which to read further, or other books to examine. Such a course ought to give him a start at least as an independent selector for himself.

I have not space enough left to describe any other course so fully, but one or two of different sorts may be barely indicated.

Biographical. A peculiary fresh and interesting view of general or special history can be obtained by selecting a series of Lives, or Lives and Times, of the most prominent and influential personages who have appeared among men. Here it will be found that the earliest biographies are Biblical, that of Moses being probably the best to begin with. The chain can not be kept unbroken, but some such succession could be made out as this: Moses; the founder of a nation. David; the rise of empire. Confucius; a heathen moral philosophy; Pericles; a civilized Greek dictatorship. Socrates; a Greek mission for free inquiry. Alcibiades; Greek "personal politics." Demosthenes; Greek patriotic democracy. Xenophon; Greek soldiership and literature. Plato; Greek idealism. Aristotle; Greek national science. Alexander; Greek conquest. Hannibal; fighting it out in a losing cause. Mathias and the Maccabæan family; patriotism upheld by a true religion. Cæsar; Roman military genius, literature and statesmanship

Augustus; Roman administration. Herod; a tyranny. Christ; a Redeemer. I need not continue the list, but of course the materials become rapidly more sufficient, and then ample, and then overpowering. It must not be supposed that such a series represents any systematic development or succession on any single principle except, in a general way, the principle that the world improves. It is now a personal quality, now a national tendency, now an almost ideal "cause" that is represented, as the varying tides of the stream of time shift one way and another. Separate books on the great majority of such men are to be found; such as the brief histories of Alexander the Great, Hannibal and Julius Cæsar, by Mr. J. S. C. Abbott, which would do very well for most readers; and, on the principles of library cataloguing as now practised, the books which any library has about each will appear in the catalogue under his name in its alphabetical place.

Literary; by masterpieces. One of Emerson's rules about reading to which I have before referred is, never to read any but "famed books." That I do not believe is a wise rule; it is too exclusive; but I can imagine very profound delight in a course of reading of the masterpieces of human intellect in their chronological order; first coming down the line of the poets, then of the dramatists, then of the historians, then of the biographers, then of the philosophers (*if*

it be possible to read them), then of the wits and humorists, then of the romancers, then of the essayists, and so on.

Religious; by sacred books. This, it is true, requires too much learning for its adequate study to be suited to popular reading; but is worth a brief reference by way of comparison. We have the Chinese classics, the Buddhist Tripitaka, the Brahminical Vedas, the Zoroastrian Zend Avesta, the Sikh Adi Granth, the Greek Theogony of Hesiod (which comes as near being a sacred book as any they had), the Jewish Talmud, the Mohammedan Koran, the Scandinavian Edda, the Christian Bible. All these, or sufficient parts of them for the purpose, have now been translated into English. Much of many of them is inexpressibly dreary reading; and yet the study of them in their historic and moral and spiritual relations is profoundly instructive and fascinating.

I have thus attempted to show how, instead of attempting to fix on one great (and as I believe impracticable and impossible) single ideal course of reading, the useful way must be to aim at something much more modest; at one or another partial course, such as to fall within the possible reading time of one who has a living to earn. I cannot stop without adding that whatever is read, or is not, a good newspaper, coming not more seldom than weekly, should be read as a matter of duty The perfect newspaper does not exist. If, now, there could be

combined the merits (so far as they differ) of the *New York Tribune* and *The Christian Union*, the result would about suit me. But a paper of their grade and general purposes and attainments will constantly keep the mind wide awake, and constantly suggest interesting trains of historical deduction, by the connection, every now and then, of to-day's news with any and every historical course of reading.

V.

PLANS OF READING.

By Cyrus Hamlin.

MAKE yourself familiar with De Quincey's distinction between the "literature of knowledge" and the "literature of power," and Ruskin's between "books of the hour" and "books of all time." The former is found in De Quincey's, "Letters to a Young Man whose education has been neglected," the latter in Ruskin's "Sesame and Lilies" in the lecture on Kings' Treasuries. In applying these distinctions do not forget the *range* of power we are to cultivate. It is not alone the feeling hopeful and strong that we want, but the actually having power in the various calls of life; as well among the needy, the sick, the sorrowing, as in the ordinary social gathering, and with congenial friends, and in our own thoughts and purposes. Starting with this intent, there are several alternatives to choose between.

One might set about gaining an acquaintance with the great facts and events of history; those that have most powerfully affected mankind. Take, for example, the rise and spread of Christianity, the Crusades, the revival of learning, the Reformation of the 16th century, the Puritan Revolution in England. Such a course would naturally lead to an acquaintance with the great movements of thought among men, the development of the various forms of art, of music, of literature; English literature first and chief.

Another, and for many a more interesting way of arriving at substantially the same result, would be to take the great characters of history. It is no small thing, to begin with, to be in this way deeply impressed with the fact that there have been in the world men so different from their fellows in some way, so distinguished above them in will, or imagination, or power of intellect or of action, that they may properly be called *great*. The impression of such a character is one of the most vivifying and health-giving that can be made upon the mind of either young or old. It is a great mistake to consider the history of mankind as simply the history of its greatest men. At the same time the lives of great men furnish a very convenient means of acquaintance with history in general. But the more important advantage is the acquaintance with great qualities, with great forces of character, which are the great forces of so-

ciety and the world. And more light will be thrown upon your own character and life, on what is needful and possible for you, than by much study of self.

A list of names could easily be made out which would give the very essence of human history and life. It would of course vary with the taste of the reader, or the judgment of the counsellor. The following is only a partial hint of what one might be, taking names in different departments representing great epochs, traits of character and movements of thought: Constantine, St. Augustine, Charlemagne, Alfred the Great, St. Anselm, Richard I of England, Wiclif, Simon de Montfort, Savonarola, Luther, William of Orange, Queen Elizabeth of England, Michael Angelo, Cromwell, Beethoven. There is an English book, not republished in this country, very convenient and valuable in such a plan and worthy of being read in any placing: "Lectures on Great Men," by F. Myers. There is not space here to indicate individual biographies.

If you are not attracted by any consecutive plan, propose to yourself to become familiar with the great books of the world; those that men will not let die. A capital introduction to them is through the series of "Ancient Classics for English readers," edited by Collins, and "Foreign Classics," edited by Mrs. Oliphant, together with the series of "English Men of Letters." But do not undertake to read all. Select the most

notable. And do not merely read about the authors and the books. Read the great books themselves, and read them studiously. Of the larger works, or collections, read portions. Everyone, for example, ought to read of Plato, the "Apology of Socrates," the "Crito," the "Phædo," the latter with due regard to the unsoundness of its reasoning. Publishers of "Libraries" could do worse than issue some of these dialogues in cheap form.

If you desire a less extensive plan, and your taste runs in that direction, take the great poets: Homer, Æschylus, Sophocles, Euripides, Virgil, Dante, Spenser, Shakespeare, Milton.

Make each a centre of study. Read the poems, or the dramas; then group other reading about these; work out from each one in the directions which may be suggested, or may be most attractive to you—poetry, literary criticism, philosophy, history. Such a plan, while most interesting, will lead into the regions of the deepest experience of mankind, the truest and best thought and emotion that the heart of man knows, and will also by natural connection lead to much of the most important history.

In fact, it matters but little where one begins if there be a thorough purpose to go forward. Human nature, with all its vagaries, is so thoroughly one that thoughtful study will carry one from the starting-point into all the chief fields of thought

and research, not by the mere hunting out every name that may be mentioned, or every classical or historical allusion, but by the natural current and affiliation of the main drift of the work, its leading ideas, its great sentiments and passion.

Another outline is suggested by one of the features of John Ruskin's scheme for the training of English youth—the St. George's Company. His intent, if I remember correctly, is that the associates in the company shall correctly learn, among other things, the history of five cities—Athens, Rome, Venice, Florence, London. To these should be added Jerusalem, as a centre of the most important early religious history. Such a plan would combine in the most comprehensive and varied way the different elements of interest and instruction in the long and strange experience of men, and would bring one into direct acquaintance with the most important developments of human nature and the moral and intellectual powers, most constant and efficient, in the past and the present, in moulding the convictions, the hopes and the daily conduct of men. A particular commendation of this course is that, if faithfully pursued, it will lead one to consider the principles of political life and the relations of men in society, and so throw light on those questions which are daily gaining in interest

and gravity, and which no intelligent person can afford to neglect.

The purpose of these plans is not entertainment, though any of them will furnish this in abundance; nor the acquirement of knowledge, though they all lead to this. They start from and return to the idea that the object of our reading, as of any serious thought, is to know how to live; that therefore we must know the world in which we live, and *that* is as much a world of reason, imagination, affection, as it is of physical toil, or business struggle, or social ambition.

We live by admiration, hope and love. You can hardly take a better guide in your reading. What things to delight in with reverence, what things to hope for, and what things to love deeply and purely—this is what you want from books and in books just as from and in living persons. To pass through the simple experiences of human nature, the responsibilities, the hopes, the griefs as well as the gladnesses, that attach to our common lot, to taste them in their pureness, to bear them with quietness and courage, to do our work with all our heart—this is a great thing; to gain help for this is the great purpose in our reading, as in every friendship and all endeavor. And one of the chiefest blessings of books is that they bring to us the spirit of those who have felt the most deeply and acted the most manfully. They

cannot take the place of actual experience, but they prepare for it. They interpret it to us; they bring to the light much that lies undiscerned in our own natures, and rightly used, guide the way to the true fellowship of patient and noble living which makes all men akin.

VI.

PLANS OF READING.

Henry Ward Beecher's Method.*

LAICUS. What are your methods of reading and of preserving the results of what you read?

Mr. Beecher. I read for three things; first, to know what the world has done in the last twenty-four hours, and is about to do to-day; second, for the knowledge which I specially want to use in my work; and, third, for what will bring my mind into a proper mood. Different authors produce different effects upon my mind. Amongst the authors whom I frequently read are De Tocqueville, Mathew Arnold, Madame Guyon, and some of the old religious writers—some of the mystical ones. Thomas à Kempis' "Imitation of Christ" I keep within reach of my hands, both up stairs and down. The frets and cares of life are apt

* An exact stenographic report of an actual conversation.

to keep the lower section of the brain perturbed, and when you want to go to work on anything you are apt to carry trouble with you. There is an under-swell of discontent and unhappiness in you which unfits for the work which you want to do, and some authors have the peculiar quality of lifting you out of that into a serene and happy state. They excite the imagination and moral sentiment and lift me away above the dust into a state of mind in which I can work with facility and pleasure.

Laicus. Does fiction serve you in that way?

Mr. Beecher. Sometimes it does; but generally not. There are some authors of fiction whose works I like, but I usually prefer some work of solid information. I find I can enter to a very large extent oftentimes into the feelings which inspired the author when he wrote the book, and can tell what fibre of the man's mind was stirred as he wrote it. I feel it sensitively in mine, and a certain high temper and tone are attractive and exciting and uplifting to me.

Laicus. What is the use of poetry in that respect?

Mr. Beecher. It depends on whose it is. Poetry that elevates and poetry that gratifies are very different indeed; there is a great deal of interesting poetry that does not lift you, but merely entertains you where you are. But there is some poetry which carries you up to a higher sphere, particu-

larly John Milton's prose-poetry, and the writings of men like old Daniel. He is not much read now-a-days. This is also true of some of Shakespeare's sonnets, which are perhaps the most wonderful of anything he ever wrote.

Laicus. This is reading to get yourself into a right state of mind; what we may call moral hygienic reading. On what do you depend for your knowledge of current thought—upon books or upon periodicals?

Mr. Beecher. I gather it from both books and periodicals, and from conversation with men, from whom I get much that cannot be learned in any other way. I am a very slow reader.

Laicus. I have always told people just the reverse; and I am going to tell them the same on this point, notwithstanding your statement. I once went to your house (you have perhaps forgotten it) and gave you the proof-sheets of a book on phrenology, of about three hundred pages, I suppose, which I wanted you to look through. You got up from the table and went and sat down in the window; you took the book, turning over the leaves, sometimes apparently half a dozen at a time, saying as you went through the book: "That isn't true;" "that's what I have been preaching all my life;" "nonsense;" "that's a pretty good idea;" "never thought of this in that way before," etc., and by the time we were half-way through the des-

sert you had finished the book and given me your opinion on it.

Mr. Beecher. I could do that on a subject with which I was already very familiar, but not otherwise. Reading with me incites to reflection instantly. I cannot separate the origination of ideas from the reception of ideas; the consequence is, as I read I always begin to think in various directions, and that makes my reading slow; and that being the origin of it psychologically, it has grown into such a habit that if I read a novel even, I read slowly. A common story that my wife would read in less than twenty-four hours I generally take two or three weeks to get through, though not necessarily so. I read a few chapters, lay the book aside, and take it up again at some other time. I find no difficulty in doing that.

Laicus. How do you make your selection of books from the great number that are published? How do you judge what is worth reading and what is not?

Mr. Beecher. Emerson says that a book ought never to be read before it is twenty years old.

Laicus. That's not your rule, is it?

Mr. Beecher. No. I never inquire about the age of the book, but I am largely guided in purchasing them by men whose business it is to be posted in books. There are certain men to whom I can go and ask, "What is this author? What

is the standing of this book? What has been said about it?" and they will tell me in a few moments just what I want to know. They can describe a book just as Sir Joseph Hooker can describe a plant. I go to men in that regard as I do in everything else. Whenever I want anything I go to the man whose business it is to be informed on the matter, and when I have been to two or three men of that sort I can often make out of what I have got from them a better statement than any one of them could make for himself.

Laicus. How is it in respect to old books—Plato, Bacon, and the like?

Mr. Beecher. Bacon I have read, but I cannot say I ever absorbed Bacon as I have John Milton. I have read a great deal of Edmund Burke. At one time he was a great favorite with me; and so was Dr. Johnson for a time; and the old theologians, Barrow and South, I also largely read. Barrow is the one solitary man speaking the English tongue who was a master of adjectives, and could use them endlessly and never once amiss; for, to a large extent, adjectives are like leaves on a switch; they may make it look pretty, as a branch, but they prevent it striking tinglingly when you use it. They cover up and smother the sense, and a style that is choice in its adjectives is far preferable to one that abounds in adjectives. I recollect a case in which my father at a public meeting

was appointed to draw up an article. He had written one sentence: "It is wrong." Some one in the meeting got up and moved in his enthusiasm that this be corrected, and that the sentence read: "It is exceedingly wrong." My father got up and said, in his mild way, "When I was writing out this resolution in its original shape that was the way I wrote it; but, to make it stronger, I took out the 'exceedingly.'"

Laicus. You have made no mention as yet of reading for style, except incidentally.

Mr. Beecher. I never read for style.

Laicus. Would you advise young men to do so?

Mr. Beecher. I think a young man might read for style profitably; but, after all, reading for style has a very limited function after a man gets ideas. The best essay on style that I know is that by Herbert Spencer; and every young man ought to get it, read it and practise it. He says that is the best style which takes the thought or feeling or fancy of the speaker, and has the power of reproducing it on the retina of another person's mind. Though the manner and the moods of doing this may vary in detail, there are certain great fixed principles which do not vary. First among these Herbert Spencer places this: that it is to be done with the least possible labor to the person receiving the idea; and in this respect he is directly opposed to Coleridge, who puts forward

the theory that a man who has to dig for knowledge gets more benefit than one who acquires it without the trouble of digging.

Laicus. Don't you suppose your soaking yourself in John Milton has affected your style?

Mr. Beecher. It gave me a conception of power and vigor which I otherwise should not have had. I got fluency out of Burke very largely, and I obtained the sense of adjectives out of Barrow, besides the sense of exhaustiveness. He possesses that rare merit of being exhaustive but never exhausting.

Laicus. I find in regard to myself that certain writers stimulate me; that is true of Emerson and true of Carlyle. I don't pretend to be a student of Emerson; but he always sets me thinking. There are some other writers I read, who are enervating. And I often find that my mind insensibly drifts somewhat into the methods of the last author I have read.

Mr. Beecher. That will not do any harm, because it only lasts a little while; it is the habit of some sympathetic natures; but it cures itself with the next new author they take up. If I were to read this week in some of the nobler writings of John Milton, you would hear the trumpet sounding next Sunday in Plymouth Church.

Laicus. Have you anything to say about reading history?

Mr. Beecher. I should urge it. It is one of those things

which, like languages, it is very desirable to be acquainted with, and, if a young man is early put through it, is likely to be valuable to him during his life. But I don't believe much in history. It is very imperfect testimony of men's natures and thoughts, and gives one-sided views of their actions. You have to correct it yourself all the time, which you never will do. Average history is the most ingenious of fictions.

Laicus. What plan would you recommend to a young man for preserving the results of his reading? Have you yourself pursued any method to develop the habit of retentiveness of the subject-matter you read?—which is a very important thing.

Mr. Beecher. I never had the power of retaining sentences; I seldom lose thoughts. I absorb the thoughts. My reading is like rain-drops, which, pattering down on the lake, become the lake itself. I never could repeat anything. It was the stone of stumbling and the rock of offense that as a boy I could never repeat the catechism; I do not believe I could quote a dozen passages of Scripture correctly, and I do not know a hymn in the English language I could recite.

Laicus. Have you any plan of marking books, or of journalizing or copying the pith of what you read?

Mr. Beecher. No. But I think a common-place book a very good thing indeed. I would advise every young man to

get into the habit of keeping something of the sort. The great point is to read nothing without reflection. Dr. Macaulay, who used to preach in New York, told me when he was a boy at college that he began to read enthusiastically, but that at the foot of every page he read he stopped and obliged himself to give an account of what he had read on that page. At first he had to read it three or four times before he got his mind firmly fixed. But he rigorously compelled himself to conform to the process, until now he says after he has read a book through once he can almost recite it from the beginning to the end. It is a very simple habit to form early in life, and is invaluable for acquiring accuracy and thorough knowledge of the material with which a man has to deal.

VII.

THE ART OF READING.

By Hamilton W. Mabie.

EVERY intelligent traveler who travels with a purpose outlines his route, selects the places of interest which he desires to visit and carefully apportions his time. If one is to traverse a certain area of territory in a given period his movements must be guided by forethought and method. He cannot afford to gratify his vagrant impulses by loitering at one point and another as his moods suggest.

Reading is mental traveling through regions far more various and attractive than any which the longest routes of terrestrial journeyings afford. The tourist annihilates space, the reader destroys both space and time. The world of thought and action is spread out before him, and his greatest difficulty is apt to be that he does not know how to traverse it. He wastes his time in short and unprofitable excursions when he might be taking account of the antipodes.

Many people expend in desultory reading time and effort that, wisely directed, would make them masters of epochs and literatures. The art of reading is to read in such a way that with the utmost economy of time one can secure the richest results. Reading habits are generally formed, as are other habits, unconsciously. One who is just beginning to read or one who has already read much can form good reading habits, and so acquire the art of reading, as easily as any other habits can be formed, and no easier. Attention to a few rules for a reasonable time will result in the unconscious adoption of the rules by the mind which makes them habits, and relieves one from any further conscious effort. The art of reading cannot be conveyed in a single article, and two or three practical suggestions to busy people must be the limit of the present effort.

We cannot all be scholars, because scholarship demands uninterrupted hours and a continuous and absorbing attention, which in most cases the demands of active life make impossible; but anyone who has access to books may become educated in a very liberal sense and without infringing on daily duties, if he only knows how to set about it. An element of the first importance is time. Many busy people declare that they have no time for reading; but they are mistaken. They have all the time there is, and some of the world's busiest men have

found that enough to make themselves accomplished in one or more departments of knowledge. The trouble is not lack of time but wasteful habits in regard to it. Many persons entertain the notion that one must have regular and definite hours of the day or week set apart for reading in order to accomplish anything valuable. There never was a greater mistake. The busiest life has margins of time which may serve, like the borders of the old missals, to enrich and exalt the commonplaces written between. Fifteen minutes in the morning and as many in the evening devoted faithfully to reading will add appreciably in the course of a few months to one's store of knowledge. Always have a book at hand, and, whether the opportunity brings you two hours or ten minutes, use it to the full. An English scientist learned a language in the time his wife kept him waiting for the completion of her evening toilettes; and at the dinner given to Mr. Froude in this city some years ago, Mr. Beecher said that he had read through that author's brilliant but somewhat lengthy history in the intervals of dinner. Every life has pauses between its activities. The time spent in local travel in street-cars and ferries is a golden opportunity, if one will only resolutely make the most of it. It is not long spaces of time but the single purpose that turns every moment to account that makes great and fruitful acquisitions possible to men and women who have other work in life.

In order to have a book always at hand one must decide in advance what he is going to read next. For lack of this kind of forethought many readers waste time enough to make themselves good literary scholars. They are never quite decided what to get and generally end with the first volume that comes to hand, which is likely to be something of only passing interest, if not entirely worthless. Therefore by all means adopt some system. Get from an experienced friend or make up for yourself a list of books. Take an epoch and read its history, its literature, its art, its discoveries ; take a literature and master it, author by author, with the aid of a good general history ; or make a list of the standard books on some subject that interests you, and read them. In whatever direction your taste may guide you, if it is a healthy one, go, but mark out your path before you start so that you need lose no time on the way. Having put your list in some convenient form resolutely adhere to it. This may involve some effort at first, but one cannot get substantial results of any kind without some persistency, certainly not from reading. Macaulay looks formidable, but it is astonishing how, when the charm of a book makes itself felt, the pages seem to grow shorter, and how a degree of persistence possible even to an undisciplined mind will take one through the most formidable histories.

To get the best results from reading one must give himself

up to it. For the time being every object but the printed page must be forgotten. One must be entirely abstracted from his surroundings. This suggestion will not be so easily adopted as those already given. It involves an amount of mental discipline which one naturally shrinks from. There is, however, the widest difference in results between reading with a mind continually diverted by the things that are going on around one, and reading with a mind intently and absorbingly fixed on the subject in hand. The busy reader must not only carry his book with him, he must make his study wherever he happens to be. A book photographs itself on a mind which exposes to it a clear and sensitive surface. To sit in a railway car, and by opening the pages of a book to transport one's self in a second into the age of Pericles or the gardens of the Medici at Florence, is the modern version of Aladdin's lamp, and makes one master of treasures more rare and lustrous than those which adorned the palaces of Bagdad.

VIII.

THE CHOICE OF BOOKS.

By Edward Everett Hale.

WHEN a young man or a young woman, fresh from school, has the good luck for the first time to sit silent and listen to the talk of a group of well-read people, I think that, mingled with the pleasure of listening, there is apt to come in a feeling of despair. "How do they know so much?" "How can they have read so much, and where shall I begin?" I knew a young man, who afterward became insane, who was so impressed by his own ignorance that he went to the college librarian and asked him at which end of the library it was customary for students to begin. He used to tell the story in college, as if he had asked a fool's question. It is a question to which the wisest men have addressed themselves, with varying success. The most intricate plans for the arrangement of libraries and catalogues have been made in

the hope of helping a solution. For the question is: By which avenue shall we best enter the domain of literature, so that in the shortest time we may go through all its side-avenues, cross-paths and mazes? And, indeed, the question involves the other question: Would it not be better to go first upon a high tower and look down upon the maze, or, perhaps, to take a quick bicycle-run through the largest paths, by way of introduction to that slow plodding on foot of a life-time in which one shall at last come to the knowledge of every detail?

To these questions I do not propose any scientific or logical answer. That would be the business rather of orators addressing the Phi Beta Kappa, or the Alpha Delta Phi, or other literary societies. I shall rather try to give some practical recipes which work well, and for which if I were challenged I could give the theory; but I shall here leave out the theory, though I may sometimes suggest it.

In the first place, we must make this business agreeable. Whichever avenue we take into the maze must be one of the pleasant avenues, or else, in a world which the good God has made very beautiful, the young people will go a-skating, or a-fishing, or a-swimming, or a-voyaging, and not a-reading, and no blame to them. Now, we shall not insure this pleasantness of the work by any well-digested list of books beginning with "Stone's History of the Neolithic Ages," "Stock's His-

tory of the Idolaters," "Long's Essay on the Laws of Descent," and coming out on "Drone's Conspectus of Future Civilization." We learn something worth learning when we see that in public libraries the first volumes of histories are much more worn than the second, the second than the third, while the fifth and sixth are scarce worn at all. This means that the young readers, who started as numerous as the pilgrims on Mirza's bridge, fell by the way as rapidly as they did. And, as only one English officer came up to General Jackson's line alive and then turned around amazed to ask why his men did not follow him, so there is hardly one in a thousand who attacks Lingard or Froude with the audacity of youth who ever comes out with the laurels of victory at the end of the tenth or twelfth volume. Alexander Everett used to say, "Books must be legible. You might as well write with white ink on white paper, or with blue ink on blue paper, as write so as to put the reader to sleep, or in any way discourage him from reading." And the converse of this applies in the matter we have in hand. As this business can be made agreeable let us make it so, and enlist in our pilgrimage not only the ascetics who think it a duty to be unhappy and uncomfortable but that larger number of persons who, though not depraved, are glad to have a good time as they go. No fear in this world but the ascetics will find a plenty of stupid reading, and can with-

out our instruction make their course as disagreeable as they choose.

Let us then, instead of starting with a list of books to be read in six months, or six years, or sixty-six, take some particular book which young people of sense are quite sure to like. Suppose we take the single volume of Macaulay's Essays, which may be bought in a nice English edition for a dollar. Let us hope there is a club willing to read this at once, consisting of three nice girls, or two nice girls and a boy, or two nice boys and a girl, or three nice boys. Even now I do not propose that they should begin the book and read it through. Why should they? It is made up of articles which were written at different periods, as Macaulay had time or occasion. But suppose they took the "Life of William Pitt, Lord Chatham." Suppose they knew that Pitt was somehow mixed up with the history of America. They would know this from the names of "Pittsfield" and "Pittsburg," if they had formed the good habit of thinking or asking about names. Suppose they knew that nothing Macaulay wrote would be dull, and so, for their first evenings, read the two articles on the life of Pitt.

They will not read very far before the sense of their own ignorance overpowers them. They will find people alluded to that they never heard of, and things spoken of as perfect mat-

ters of course of which none of the three knew anything. Very well. What of that? Just what we are reading for is to learn these very things. Eternity is before us if we only begin promptly—now—as the archangels do.

Let each of the three then have a piece of blank paper and a pencil, so as to note in a moment and without stopping the reading some of the things in which he most feels his ignorance, or what he most wants to know. I use the blank paper at the end of the book if the book is my own. No matter if the different members of the club make different lists. Let them jot down a word or two with reference to the page of the book they are reading.

Here is such a list:

MACAULAY'S LIFE OF PITT. Edinburgh R., January, 1834, Oct., 1844.*

Orleans Diamonds. Essays, II., 225.

Rotten Boroughs.

Chesterfield. *Ton.* 230.

Jacobite Rebellion.

Pepys, 241.

The Pretender, 245.

Murrays, 247.

Minorca, 226.

*Of course if your notes are in the book this title is unnecessary.

Brown's Estimate.

Admiral Byng, 259.

Goree. Ticonderoga. Wolfe. 267.

Lord George Sackville, 271.

Of course I do not say that you yourself, reading in another mood, would not make a different list. I do not pretend that this is the best list. It is a list. And if you will take its hints it will lead you in the way in which you should go, supposing always that you have made it for yourself. That is, I suppose that such little notes will call to your mind so many subjects on which you are ignorant, and about which you will like to learn.

Now, what I propose is that, before the club meets the next time, each of its members shall loyally try to make good his ignorance on some of those points. Sometimes the cyclopædia will help you—sometimes the mere fact that your eyes are opened makes you see the thing. Thus, the mere fact that you wrote down the words "Regent's diamond," makes those words start out from the newspaper where there is an article about the "Regent's diamond" which you would never have looked at twice, had you not been reading Macaulay's essay. Any library, however small, your own or a friend's, will help you much more than you can dream before you have tried. And the great merit of the "Public Libraries," however lim-

ited their funds or the numbers of their books, is that they do help directly such readers as you are beginning to be. Not least is the resource of conversation. Ask any person you really like, who is not a sheer fool, to help you. If you meet the minister in the street car, say to him squarely, "Can you tell me, Mr. Edwards, what 'Brown's Estimate' is?" May be he will know. May be he will not. But he ought to be able to find out, or put you on the way to.

Now, mark, I do not say that all these questions are to be answered at once, or half of them. I only say that each of you is to make a loyal effort to rub down his list, or her list, before the reading club meets again. When it meets give appreciable time to the lists, before you go on with the reading. It may be in very fast talk. But let each one bring in his quota. The talk will be something like this:

"What in the world are you lugging, Fergus?"

"Why! I have got the original folio edition of Pope's 'Essay on Man.' Dean McVaughan lent it to me."

"Oh! I hate the 'Essay on Man.' I had to learn it at school:

"'Awake, my St. John.'

"I can spout it now."

"But see, it is not 'St. John.' Here it is 'Lælius,' and Pope's theology changed after this. He says here that the

world is a 'maze without a plan.' But when you learned it he said it was '*not* without a plan.'"

"That's queer. Did you find what he said about the old Duchess of Marlborough?"

"Yes, but first look here. See this about Chesterfield. I remembered you had Chesterfield on your list."

"Oh yes, and the letters seem very droll—look here, and look here."

"But has anybody found 'Brown's Estimate?'" and so on, and so on, till they must begin to read.

Do you not see that a very few weeks of such experience will really transfer all three of them into the spirit of the times in which William Pitt was born and grew up? And before they have finished that single essay of Macaulay's they will have learned "How to Read," better than I can teach them.

Of course it may happen that a person must read alone. He will have to use more pluck because he has less sympathy. In suggesting that three people shall read together, I have only meant to say that I think that is the most enlivening way.

IX.

HOW TO MAKE DULL BOYS READ.

By Joseph Cook.

THE problem is different in country and city. The country presents by far the more difficult side of the theme. In the first place, the pulpit ought to be awakened to the duty of directing the reading of the young. The pastor in his visits may ascertain very easily what the boys are reading, and a little attention to family libraries ought, I think, to be a part of pastoral activity. It is to me a very interesting memory that a venerated preacher in my native town, the brother of Treasurer Herrick, of Yale College—Henry Herrick, who was lately living in Connecticut—came into my father's house when I was, perhaps, ten years old, and looked at my library. His commendation of certain books interested me. Although he was not officious he was efficient in directing my reading. Two districts had been united near my father's residence and a

library was to be sold at auction. My father furnished me with money enough to buy pretty nearly the whole of this collection, and I thus came into possession of many of the books issued by the Harpers for school libraries. The selection was made by Chancellor Walworth, assisted by such men as Edward Everett and Jared Sparks, and was a really good one, containing such volumes as "The Pursuit of Knowledge Under Difficulties," Paley's "Natural Theology," and Benjamin Franklin's autobiography. It fascinated me at that time, and I shall never forget how proud I was of my first library, which was hardly more than three feet square.

But to incite a dull boy to read you must not rely on clerical influence as much as on parental; and, therefore, attention must be given to the reading of the older members of the community. If the heads of the family have a love for reading, the taste almost invariably descends to the children. The formation of town libraries in places with populations of three to five thousand inhabitants ought to be encouraged. The schoolteacher in every Union school or academy should be furnished with the means of inciting a taste for reading in his pupils by the aid of a library belonging to the institution.

The sluggish circulation of books in our rural districts should be quickened in all ways, and especially through cheap editions of great authors. It appears to me one of the hopeful signs of

the times that scientific primers are now being widely put into circulation. Of course there is no royal road to knowledge, but it is better that elementary instruction, prepared in primers by experts, should be sunk into the minds of the population than that the common people should go back even to the reverence which they had in early New England days for scholars speaking *ex cathedra.* We are a nation of smatterers, but hope to be something better in time. The fear of superficial learning through the distribution of science in an elementary form is not unnatural on the part of some, yet it should be remembered that these primers are usually written by experts, and that the names of several of the foremost men in science have been placed upon the title-pages of elementary works for the people. Let a boy have these and he will be incited by them to the study of the greater works, which ought to be classics even in libraries intended for young people.

Make a dull boy feel that the dime novel is vulgar. I remember that, in "Telemachus," Ulysses tried to convince a man who had become one of a herd of swine that it was shameful to be a pig; but he did not succeed. The flooding of the land with dime novels and with infamous periodicals of the cheaper and coarser kind acts like Circe's enchantment on wide circles of youth. No doubt it is a frequent incitement to crime, and, on the whole, is one of the most monstrous of the undis-

guised evils in the modern days of cheap printing. Let a boy learn that some publications are not fit to be handled with the tongs. Let parents exclude from the family mansion the frogs and vipers that swarm forth from the oozy marshes of the Satanic press. Let the dull boy make the acquaintance of Cooper, Scott, Defoe and "Pilgrim's Progress"—a book by no means outgrown. Personally I must confess great indebtedness to the "Rollo" books, the "Jonas" books and "The Young Christian," by the late revered father of the editor of *The Christian Union.* Richter, in his "Titan," represents one of his characters at the age of twenty-five as making a collection of all the books he had read while young, including the volumes he had studied at school as well as the fiction which had interested him in early days. Let a dull boy be incited by his parents, his school teachers, his Sunday-school instructors, and especially by his pastor, to dip deeply into the classics for youth. After the best works of historical fiction become fascinating to him, history will interest and biography will attract him. When a boy has once acquired a keen interest in biographical and historical reading he cannot thereafter be wholly vulgar in his taste for literature.

As to the bright boy in the country little need be said, for he will take care of himself. He will have the best books, or a few of them at least, and they will be his chief treasures.

My impression is that such a boy ought not to think the city necessary for a thorough acquaintance with the masters of literature. There are only about one thousand really first-class books in the English language—certainly not over a thousand that deserve reading three times through. Of the greatest books there are not over a hundred in the mother-tongue in which any man is born. If teacher and parent will help the boys to select these, and make up a library for them out of the volumes that deserve to be absorbed, the taste of a bright boy will very soon guide itself. He cannot go amiss in the list of books which time has approved. My opinion is that the taste of youth should be formed by literature of standard reputation far more than by ephemeral novelties, however brilliant. We should early become thoroughly familiar with the hundred best books in our language, for these will be with us through life, and be the chief solace of our declining years. I can put into a bookcase five feet square the volumes which, in my opinion, contain the chief *weight* of English literature. We are to weigh books, not measure them, and I would do this even for youth.

As to both dull boys and bright boys in cities, their opportunities of information are so abundant that only two pieces of advice need be given :

Carlyle's exclamation, " Here are books ; fall to ! "

And Wellington's at Waterloo, " Up and at 'em ! "

The chief difficulty of bright boys in the city will be in the abundance of books ; and I think it important to insist rigorously, especially for the keenest, that their library shelves should not be *col*lections but *se*lections. They will have the family library, the city library, and perhaps three or four other libraries within reach, besides the bookstores ; which last are by no means to be neglected, for reading a book with the fingers at a bookseller's stall is an art that should be taught early to youth.

The dull city boy is in the midst of more temptation than the dull country boy, and nothing but the most earnest training on the part of his parents or instructors will prevent him from forming a taste for coarse amusements, and so neglecting the deluge of opportunity about him. The dull city boy is in a position not to be envied by the dull country boy, for probably of all circumstances that tempt the youth of a somewhat torpid intellect those of the great city are the worst sorceries and likely to cause him to become the most degraded. The dull boy in the city, therefore, should be brought into clubs of young people and made ashamed of himself, if he neglects the opportunities for reading afforded by such societies as bring out social ambition in connection with literary taste.

I have at no time forgotten the efforts making in the United

States for the promotion of home reading, and they apply to the country as well as to the city, but afford particular advantages to the populations of large villages. The Boston "Society for the Promotion of Home Reading" furnishes a list of volumes on special topics, carries on correspondence as to authorities in science, prints circulars, and has an annual reunion of such readers as choose to participate in it. I believe also that essays are sent in for examination by some readers at a distance. The celebrated Chautauqua plan for the promotion of home reading has application both to the city and the country, but especially to the latter, and appears to me to deserve the weighty commendation it received from William Cullen Bryant. Some fifteen thousand persons have paid a small fee to secure the assistance of the Central Secretary, Dr. Vincent, of Plainfield, New Jersey, who executes the Chautauqua plan. The text books are many of them written by experts expressly for preparatory courses, and are strongly to be recommended for popular reading. A close oversight of the work of the readers is kept by the secretary; certain reunions occur—or will take place—but the plan is yet in its infancy. The object of the enterprise is to give the average citizen a college student's outlook. Let boys be brought into such plans as the Boston and Chautauqua reading enterprises exemplify, and let the dull youth be harnessed with the bright one and so keep himself out of the places of temptation in cities.

Over every library-case should stand the words: "Avoid rubbish." A second-rate book, however good, is a mischief if it occupies the time we ought to devote to a first-rate. In regard to reading, as well as to much else, there is deep wisdom in a German proverb which asserts that the better is a great enemy of the best.

X.

HOW TO PRESERVE THE RESULTS OF READING.

By Joseph Cook.

SAMUEL JOHNSON says that "interest is the mother of attention;" but attention is the mother of memory. To secure memory, therefore, secure its mother and grandmother. It is a very common and fatal error to neglect this grandparent. When one is absorbingly interested in a theme the mind becomes strangely receptive, and draws to itself, as a magnet gathers up iron filings, all information within its reach as to the topic in hand. The best rule for the acquisition and the preservation of information is to make the mind magnetic by acquiring profound interest in a theme. Possibly your intellectual enthusiasm may limit itself to one topic for a long while. A specialist may become lynx-eyed, and yet, by reason of exclusive attention to a single subject, also remain wall-eyed. Endeavor, therefore, to excite in yourself two enthusiasms, in

order that there may be both a north and a south pole in the magnet of your intellect. Two subjects will be likely to draw into connection with themselves a range of reading which will be something like what the Jordan is in the northern half of the Dead Sea—a current of perfectly fresh water in the midst of bitter waves. You may have, as Ruskin says, "a little island of your own with a grove and spring in it, sweet and good," while the waste, howling ocean of the world's useless information rolls around you.

Personally, I have learned to rely on the margins of the books that I read as being themselves my best note-books. Of course I am speaking now only of the volumes which are my own property. These I am perhaps scandalously free in marking, and so every ordinary volume that I have in my library becomes a note-book. If one indicates the important and more important and most important passages in a book, even if it be only by one or two or three lines in the margin, and if one then makes it *an inflexible rule to commit to memory from every one of the volumes thus marked all the three-line passages*, he will very soon find that his annotated volumes are in his head. In committing to memory the three-line passages I should advise everyone, as I do myself, to oblige himself to review and and pretty nearly commit to memory the two-line and the one-line passages. These may not be numerous in some volumes,

and yet in works that are only to be read with the fingers they are worth memorizing.

It is said that Carlyle reads on the average a dozen books a day. Of course he examines them chiefly with his fingers, and after long practice is able to find at once the jugular vein and carotid artery of any author. John Quincy Adams was said to have "a carnivorous instinct for the jugular vein" of an argument. In discussing the secret of memory, we first have interest inducing attention, and then the skill given by experience in finding the jugular vein. My habit is to mark on the inner margin all the passages with which I disagree, and thus many volumes which I am obliged to read are transformed into thorn-bushes full of spurs to debate. The shelf of my library on which I have collected the chief infidel writers' works of the last hundred years holds volumes plentifully marked in this way. The three-line passages I have committed to memory as being enormous and most mischievous errors. This plan of marking volumes can be made very elaborate, and every reader must invent his marks for himself. My enthusiasm led me to have altogether too elaborate a system of marking; but at present I am convinced that for myself I need only six marks—those for important, more important, and most important passages, which I mark on the outside margin, and those for error, and more and most important errors, which I mark on the

inside. I turn down the leaf at the top of the page for the first-class passages that are to be memorized, and at the bottom for the second-rate passages. Standard books I like to buy in portable and compact and yet cheap editions, on which I can use a pencil without sacrilege. I always go through the book fastening in mind the places marked, when I have finished the first journey.

A word now as to note-books, and volumes that you do not own. Of course a borrowed book cannot be marked, and probably in that case Channing's method is the best one—to read with slips of paper between the leaves. In his pigeonholes these slips of paper, on which he made notes as he read, were arranged according to the subjects and as they accumulated from year to year; and when he was engaged upon any particular topic they accumulated with great rapidity. I am obliged to read extensively in libraries not my own, and my plan is to make notes on common paper with a margin turned down at the left-hand side. I never put more than one subject on one piece or paper; and every week or fortnight the slips thus obtained are filed or pinned together according to the subjects. Thus my note-book thickens; but if convenience requires, can be unstitched and rearranged. It appears to me to be foolishness to keep ordinary note-books in thick, bound manuscript volumes which cannot be taken before a public as-

sembly, or used in separate parts. I am obliged to carry note-books with me on the railways, and am always provided with the simplest form of note paper. Of course these leaves can be easily put into the form of note-books which can be rearranged if necessary; and I find it best never to bind them. I wish often to unbind them. A passage which I think I shall quote in print from any book I am accustomed to write lengthwise of the paper—that is, from the bottom to the top; a passage I think I shall not quote I write the other way. All slips written from bottom to top are first-class matter; and I can easily take them out of my note-books and put them into manuscripts intended for the press. I am obliged to do this sometimes in great haste, and find it important to have my note-books unbound. If I had to keep notes in bound volumes the infelicity of tearing out leaves would be unavoidable, as there would be no time for copying.

But the results of reading are best preserved by communicating them to others. Let young men be taught to keep commonplace books, and especially to converse concerning what they read. I am not a friend of very large attention to debating societies by young men advanced to the higher stages of college training; but in the academic period—the years of preparation for college and especially in the days of the country academy—it appears to me that a youth with any

tendency toward public speaking should be encouraged to enter school debates and the best lyceums, in order that he may communicate to others the results of his reading. No one is so likely to remember what he reads as he who reads with a purpose of advancing some good cause by communicating his information. If a young man intends to enter the profession of law, or theology, or to become a lecturer, or author, or editor, he has before him such a career that he should begin early to imitate Edmund Burke in constantly working out trains of thought. Let him make notes, early, in his commonplace books, and he will find that years before he can face the public he will have accumulated many suggestions likely to be of great service in his professional career. Mr. Emerson's essays are gathered from his journals. So were Goethe's and Montaigne's. So were Thoreau's. In a railway train at one sitting I once read through three of Mr. Emerson's essays backward. The paragraphs are selected from his journals, and are often arranged in no logical connection. Mr. Alcott says that he once found Emerson in his study engaged in shuffling a set of manuscript extracts from his journals in order that he might determine the order of the paragraphs in an essay which afterward became celebrated. It is a Concord theory that the very finest writing must be grown in the orchards of journals. The preservation of the results of

reading in journals is to be commended to young men of literary taste, and yet journal-writing may easily be made to minister to vanity, self-consciousness and individualism of a mischievous species, and if carried far enough may mislead even a powerful man into ego-theism. But I am now speaking of a journal much like a commonplace book, and can recommend, as one good means of securing the results of reading, a daily or weekly expression of one's thoughts as to the subjects examined, and the collection from those entries of the best passages into essays, after Mr. Emerson's method.

XI.

HINTS FOR PEOPLE THAT DO NOT READ.

By Lyman Abbott.

YOUR time is limited; your books are few. There is work in the kitchen, in the parlor, in the office demanding your attention; clients to be pacified or provoked, patients to be cured or killed, goods to be bought and sold, children to be tended, furniture to be dusted, table to be set and table to be cleared away again; and for a library the family Bible, Webster's Dictionary, the well-thumbed and oft-read books in the sitting room, and the genteel and gilt-edged poetry in the parlor, with a limited purse from which to replenish the exhausted library, and limited time with which to use it if it were replenished. This is no fancy sketch, but a photograph of many an American life. How find time, how find means for study in such circumstances, is the problem of many a would-be student who lays down his intellectual life in despair;

who in the first twenty years of his life gets an appetite for learning and in the other forty starves to death. Especially is this true of wives and mothers. How shall a would-be student so situated pursue systematic reading and study?

I. America gives a library to almost every home, in the periodical publications—the daily journal, the weekly paper and the monthly magazine. Two copies of the *New York Tribune* cost eight cents. Two copies of *The Christian Union* cost twelve cents; the two copies of either paper contain nearly or quite as much matter as is contained in an ordinary dollar book. Either the daily or the weekly newspaper furnishes in quantity abundant material for study, and material in quality well worth study. The modern newspaper gives a history of human life. In it you may read the record of God's work in our own age; and in no age has his work been grander or human progress more rapid. In France, an empire transformed into a republic, and religious liberty which had been exiled two hundred years ago summoned back to the home of the Huguenots; in Spain, the Bourbon queen driven from her disgraced throne and a constitutional government borrowed from England for the land of Philip II, a noble revenge for the Spanish Armada of the sixteenth century; Italy, which has given law to Christendom, once more clad with law; and Rome, mother of republics, once more made Republican in all but name; the crescent turning

back upon its path and setting in the East in a stormy sky, while out of a people long lying prostrate at the foot of the "unspeakable Turk" emerges the germ of a nation possibly to rival the glory of ancient Macedon,—these are some of the events which have taken place within the last cycle. Of them no book will tell you. For them you must go to the newspaper. What in interest and importance to us are the Gallic campaigns of Cæsar and the strifes between plebeian and aristocrat in Rome compared with this history, in which we live and of which we form a part? Study the newspaper; if possible, study it with cyclopædia, with atlas, with gazetteer; but study it. No literature is worthier your study. Waste no time on the shameful scandals, the bitter political controversies, the ecclesiastical broadsword exercises and the idle paragraph gossip. A war of words is no more dignified in a journal than on the street; gossip is no worthier your attention because printed by *the* daily tattler than when whispered by *a* daily tattler. Who was married and what she wore can be safely dismissed in a casual reading, perhaps better with none at all. But how God is evoking a new continent out of Africa, by the labor of a Livingstone and a Stanley; how he is laying the foundation of a new free commonwealth in Bulgaria; how he is redeeming France from the curse she brought upon herself by the cruelties first of a religion without humanity, and then of a humanita-

rianism without religion,—these are themes worthy of study; and the newspaper is the library in which to study them. There is no more fascinating intellectual occupation than watching the course of contemporaneous history. The denouements of Wilkie Collins and Charles Reade are nothing to those of life's actual drama. The romance of fiction is inane by the side of the romance of facts.

II. In this study the monthly perodical will aid you. The American magazine is rightly named. "A magazine," says Webster, "is a storehouse, a granary, a cellar; a warehouse in which anything is stored or deposited." The world has never known such storehouses of well-selected mental food as are furnished by our American publishers—by "Scribner's," "Harper's," "Lippincott's" and the "Atlantic." The ablest writers of America are laid under contribution. The ablest artists are called on to add both the attractions and illuminations of the pencil. The highest prices are paid to both. The magazine skims the cream from many a pen and gives it to its readers. The weekly paper churns the cream into butter. The art of skilled condensation can go no farther than we carry it in America.

III. But to the journal—weekly or daily—and the magazine you will want to add some study of books. Periodical reading may become desultory reading. It need not, but there is always

danger. In the periodical you buy your worsteds of all colors mixed together. You must afterward do your own sorting or the product of your needles will be of a very heterogeneous pattern. But it does not require a great deal of money to add a study of excellent books to the study of periodicals. The Harper's Half Hour Series includes a good assortment of English classics; and they are sold at twenty-five cents each. The Chautauqua primers are excellent guides to study, and they cost from ten to twenty cents. I am in favor of international copyright; but when I perceive that the English edition of Justin McCarthy's "History of Our Own Times" costs nine dollars, and an American pamphlet edition is produced for a quarter of a dollar, I hope that the copyright, when it comes, will not leave American readers at the mercy of English prices.

For courses of study in books observe three rules:

1. Begin with what is congenial. Choose not what you *ought* to know but what you *want* to know. Therefore let no one else choose for you. It is a rare mind that can keep itself to a course of distasteful study. It is not safe for any one to assume, without proof. that he has a rare mind.

2. Begin with a short course. Do not lay out, for history, Hume, Macaulay and Miss Martineau, with the idea that when

you have finished these fifteen volumes you will be well versed in English history. That is very true; but you will never finish them. Read Jacob Abbott's life of Charles I or II, or Macaulay's Lord Chatham or Temple, or Thomas Hughes' Alfred the Great. One thing at a time; and that thing short and simple. Putting the word *done* opposite a purpose is a wonderful incentive to a large achievement in the next attempt.

3. Buy a dictionary, an atlas, and, if possible, a cyclopædia. If you have not the money make over an old bonnet. No harm will be done if it cultivates a habit of making over old bonnets. If a gentleman, dispense with cigars for a year. No harm will be done if this cultivates a habit of dispensing with cigars. If this does not supply the increasing demand for increasing facilities try some other economies. I visited not long since the home of one of the most eminent of America's youngest astronomers. He lived in a little box of a house, in an out-of-the-way street, with not an easy chair in the house. But his wife had a fine piano, and he a microscope that cost him $300. Equipped with dictionary and atlas, never pass a word the meaning of which you do not know; the name of a place the location of which you have not fixed; or reference to an event which you do not comprehend. In invading a new territory never leave an unconquered garrison behind you.

Theme and tools selected, it still remains to secure time. For the best advantage this should be regular, systematic, uninterrupted. The early hours are the best ; when the brain is fresh and the mind alert. To the mind and body trained for it, half an hour before breakfast is worth an hour and a half after supper. But this requires an opportunity to shut out intrusion which perhaps the housekeeper cannot secure ; facility to shut out the more subtle intrusion of thick on-coming crowd of cares, which only a stalwart power of concentration can secure. Some cannot lock the door of the library ; others cannot lock the door of the mind. But if time cannot be taken at one hour seize it from another ; if it cannot be taken with regularity take it when chance offers. The blacksmith's forge is not a convenient desk ; but it was at the blacksmith's forge, blowing the bellows with one hand and holding a book with the other, that Elihu Burritt learned his first languages. The nursery is not the place one would choose for astronomical calculations ; but it was in the nursery, beset by her children, whom she never neglected, and interrupted by callers whom she rarely refused, that Mary Somerville wrought out her "Mechanism of the Heavens," which elected her an honorary member of the Royal Astronomical Society, and put her in the first rank of the scientists of her day. A cue at the post-office is not the ideal place for

study ; but it was as an errand boy at Amsterdam, standing in the long line of boys at the post-office, often in the rain, book in hand, that Dr. Schliemann laid the foundation of his future career as the great Greek explorer of the century. Where there is a will there is a way. He or she that can find no time for study has little real heart for it.

XII.

A SYMPOSIUM.

By Many Contributors.

WHEN the original series of articles from which this book is composed had drawn to its close, the editors of *The Christian Union* invited the readers generally to send brief hints evolved out of their own experience in the use of books. A great number of replies to the six questions suggested were received, from which the following hints are selected.

In making the selection we have culled from many letters and postal cards various hints, often repeating each other, which we have reported as nearly as possible in the words of one or another of our correspondents and classified under the six questions editorially presented in *The Christian Union.* When there were inconsistent suggestions from the different quarters we have reported them both, leaving our readers to choose between them.

1. How to select books:

Rummage the book-stores and the libraries.

Read the book notices in the best literary papers—such as *The Christian Union*, *New York Tribune*, *Springfield Republican*, *Literary World*, the *New York Nation*, and the *London Spectator*.

Choose books that can be held without tiring the hands or wrists.

Cheerful bindings but plain. Gilt grows tawdry.

For *home* reading begin with books to please and instruct children.

Get *what* you want, *when* you want it.

Get the judgment of a friend who knows your character and literary tastes and aspirations.

2. How to take care of books:

Get good editions well bound.

Cover them with strong brown paper; for large and fine books linen, neatly sewed on, is still better.

Have book-shelves for them; a place for every book and every book in its place.

Do not have doors to your cases; they are in the way.

Doors are essential to protect the books from dust. Should be wood, or lined if made of glass. The sun fades the bindings.

Be careful to whom you lend.

Use carefully.

Read frequently. Neglect is the great despoiler. Better wear out than rust out.

3. WHAT TO READ:

Masterpieces only.

By subjects always.

That which you are deficient in and most need.

What you are most interested in.

What you have recently heard about and want to know about.

A variety. Do not weary yourself over one kind of books; mingle biography, travels, history, fiction, etc.

Never read a book that is not worth reading twice.

Read books that furnish mental food and mental stimulus.

4. HOW AND WHEN TO READ:

Systematically. Do not run from one subject to another.

Slowly. Never give more time to reading a book than to reflecting upon its contents.

Never try to read when it is laborious; the memory will not retain it. One hour when fresh is worth three when tired.

Solid reading, for instruction, when fresh; light reading for entertainment, slowly, easily, lazily, when tired.

In the early morning hours, say from five to eight—premising that you go to bed at half-past nine.

Whenever you can get a chance—except at night when you ought to be asleep.

In the evenings: get your husband to read to you.

I read at any time: when waiting for the pot to boil; when waiting for the lords of creation to come to dinner.

Always read with an atlas and dictionary.

Have books about you: employ the spare moments. You will be surprised how much can be accomplished in odd moments usually thrown away.

Persevere. Tenacity and application are almost omnipotent.

5. How to preserve the results of reading.

Reflect on your reading. Read thoughtfully.

Write as you read. Make abstracts of your author.

Read with a pencil in hand; mark all important passages and index them by reference on the fly-leaf at the end. Then re-read the marked passages:—Joseph Cook's way.

Keep a book of choice extracts: copy into it choice marked extracts.

Re-read.

Fasten your knowledge by frequent geographical, historical and biographical references.

Read no more at a time than you can hold.

Discuss your reading or criticise it with others who have

read the same. If a person after reading a book lays it down without comment, it does not amount to much.

Rigorously compel yourself to give an analysis of what you read; not by pen, but by mental process.

6. How to interest children in good books.

Put before them only good books; keep bad and indifferent books away.

Watch for and encourage their own good selections. Tell them stories and then send them to the books where the stories are to be found.

Read *with* them.

Have good books about the house *and no others.* Read them yourself and talk them over.

Give your children at first simple and interesting books, then something better.

READING CLUBS.

It has been truly said, "The art of reading consists in knowing what to leave out." How shall we learn this art? My eight-year-old boy said to me the other day, with a short sigh, "Mamma, I think I have too many books; you had better put some away." I saw he had begun the conflict which all of us who like books have experienced. With all who read intelligently, each book suggests many others. The field of vision enlarges till it passes the bonds of our horizon and a numb

feeling of despair comes over us. For women, who have lives full of interruption, what is left to do? Nothing but to take all crumbs that fall, eagerly feeding the hunger within upon the best one may obtain. Papers, magazines, books that may be snatched up and dropped again, filling passing moments of time, are nearly all a housekeeper and mother can hope for, unless she has the good fortune to have a husband who will read aloud.

Then, there are organizations. For two years or more seven or eight of these busy woman of us have met for two hours on one morning of each week for reading in French. It is difficult to brush aside the complications around us, but profitable. We read important books, not light novels. We think we owe this to ourselves and to our children, and if we did not do it, undoubtedly we would lose all we ever knew of French. Out of this grew an evening Shakespeare club limited in number to about twenty-four members, reading in parts aloud. This, in its third winter, is vigorous and lively, increasing in interest with original essays, selections and historical facts bearing upon the play of the evening. Small organizations are a great help in inspiring, suggesting and selecting reading.

HOW A BUSY MAN READS.

Being engaged in "keeping store," both day and evening, I have but little time for reading; yet I have surprised

myself by using spare moments at home. A few moments in the morning, at noon, at supper time, and in the evening before bedtime, will do wonders when made subservient to a will and a passion for literature.

I have used with much profit Professor Porter's "Books and Reading," Putnam's "Best Reading" (with Fred. Perkins' excellent hints), and Emerson's essay on "Books." Porter's book should be in the hands of every true lover of books. I find the "American Bookseller," published semi-monthly by the American News Co., a very valuable guide to current literature. A good feature of the "Bookseller" is that it permits its subscribers to advertise *free* for books wanted, thus enabling one to find books "out of print," and often works at very low prices.

The "Publishers' Weekly," published by F. Leypoldt, in New York, gives very full information about all matters in the book-world, and the "Library Companion," issued quarterly by the publishers of this volume, gives, at the nominal price of 50 cents a year, priced and classified lists of the most important English and American publications of each quarter, to which are added brief characterizations or descriptions of the books mentioned. The "Library Companion" forms a quarterly and annual supplement to Putnam's "Best Reading." The Putnams also publish "The Literary News," which is issued

monthly, and which contains full lists of the publications of each month, and reviews and descriptions of the more important.

I use Putnam's "World's Progress," Hadyn's "Dictionary of Dates," Webster's Unabridged, Chambers's Encyclopædia, Hale and Wheeler's "Brief Biographies," a geography, and Bartlett's "Familiar Quotations." I am indebted to Fred. Perkins for my discovery of a number of these valuable reference books.

In the book I am reading I keep note paper, where I jot down everything I do not understand—even words about whose pronunciation I am uncertain. This seems tedious and painstaking, but I know it pays. I refer these words, terms, names or phrases to reference books or to some history where I may be likely to find them. For instance: I did not know all about the Ohio Company spoken of in Bancroft's "United States," whereupon I turned to Dillon's "Indiana" and found the desired information.

I find it a splendid practice to illuminate any historical period I have been passing over with a good historical novel. Thus, Scott's "Woodstock" for Cromwell's time; "Kenilworth" for the days of Elizabeth, Raleigh, Shakespeare, and for alchemy and astrology. What historical novel can match Thackeray's "Virginians" for a fine picture of

the days just previous to our Independence, or for the vices of court, state and church in England prior to Wesley.

I index my books with pencil on the fly-leaves. Whatever strikes me as noteworthy I index. I find I have indexed Scott's and Thackeray's novels almost as fully as I have Bancroft or Rawlinson or Wilkinson.

From books that I cannot afford to buy I copy what I need—that is, if the books are obtainable from our excellent Public Library.

I put away *ten cents a day for books!* This allowance is beggarly when compared with expenditures by a vast majority of young men for worthless and transient pleasures. As I am in a position to buy books at wholesale I find this allowance increases my library rapidly.

Keeping a commonplace book for opinions of your books is a profitable practice; or, it is a good idea, I find, to write one's opinion of a volume on the fly-leaves at end of volume.

ED. ILIFF.

RICHMOND, Ind., Feb. 10, 1880.

A MOTHER'S EXPERIENCE.

I give my children plenty of good reading, and they utterly refuse bad when offered by companions. My oldest—a boy of fourteen—is hungry for history, biography and natural history. I believe it is because I read such things with him when he

was no more than eight, and from that time on, using a map and dictionary a great deal, and letting him see me using a cyclopædia and explaining the reason why I used it. Abbott's (Jacob) juvenile books hold a large place in the children's library. I read the best things in the newspapers aloud and we talk about them, and they thus learn to discriminate for themselves. When a child has history referred to in a geography lesson we get the history and read more about it.

MATER.

READING UNDER DIFFICULTIES.

I am a printer by occupation ; am twenty-three years of age ; and just grown into the hungry period of my life—knowledge-hungry. Have little time to read but in evening. Love to read history of any and all kinds, from Goodrich's "History of all Nations," down to historical scraps of noted men, and biographical anecdotes and characteristics in the newspapers. Of course I keep a strict watch on politics the while. Dickens sandwiches in between delightfully. By constant proximity of dictionary and Pierce's "Cottage Cyclopedia of History and Biography" I am gaining a good knowledge of words and the characters of history.

BUFFALO, Feb. 8, 1880. CHARLES C. ROOSA.

A FAMILY READING CLUB.

Ours was a family of nine. At least three evenings each

week all (or nearly all) were gathered in a room to read and listen, taking turns in reading, first, such reading as was adapted to the younger members, consisting of stories, travel, the best publications for the young, the various "Young Folks" columns in our newspapers—say one hour given to them; the next, works of fiction, science, biography; secular and religious papers; the several "monthlies;" reviews of books and sermons, etc. No one was allowed to read to wearisomeness. Frequently an interruption and explanation and discussion were had. Any word not fully understood was looked up in "Webster" by one not reading.

H. W. GILBERT.

FULTON, N. Y., Feb. 7, 1880.

TO GET CHILDREN TO READ.

"To get children to read good books," I put them into the infant Sunday-school at four years; read to them the little papers and cards they get there; read or relate to them Bible stories and others, as being contained in books where they can find many more, I tell them, as soon as they have learned to read. This begets a desire to learn how to read. Then I teach them (that is, my "better-half" does) to read the Bible before they are sent to school. I find that then, after school, with a Bible always in the sitting-room, as the book they have first learned to read in, they will pick it up as a playmate and read its stories for amusement. A little

later, I give them free range through those "yarns" so broad there is no danger of their believing them—"Crusoe," "Arabian Nights" and "Gulliver's Travels." I then find no trouble in engaging children, of nine to twelve years, in history, travel and biography written for them, especially if I talk, or rather get them to talk about the contents and let them teach me some new facts. A boy of ten years who cannot be induced to sit down and *eat up* Dickens' "Child's History of England," Abbott's volumes of early American history, etc., has one or two parents at fault. I keep them clear of bad books and supplied with good ones; I use a public library and make their selections—books in which they take such interest that they put faith in my choice. They never see a "Dime Novel," "Ledger," etc., and, so far as possible, I keep them from children likely to read "trash." Familiar science I read to them in mild doses. I read to a boy of eight, parts of Winchell's "Sketches of Creation," with running comments, and he had so much to tell his playmates that they thought him a prodigy; but almost any child would feed on the same. At ten that boy has read all the books here favorably mentioned for children; and, among others, Taylor's "Boys of Other Countries," Bonner's, Coffin's and Higginson's United States history books, "Swiss Family Robinson," "Tales from Shakespeare," some of Abbott's "American Pioneers," Stan-

ley's "Dark Continent," etc., etc.; his sister of fourteen, much more in that line, and on into the affectionate reading of Rolfe's edition of Shakespeare's plays. And from these I select some of their school declamations. I calculate that in their taste for good literature these children are grounded safe.

EVANSTON, Ill. J. C. AMBROSE.

SHAKESPEARE FOR CHILDREN.

Arrange the evening readings around the library table with more reference to the special needs of children. There are certain grounds in literature on which parent and child can meet in common. Take, for instance, certain portions of Bancroft's "United States"—those parts which describe the early settlement and exploration of our country; you will find that they hold alike the attention of young and old. Try, also, bits of Parkman's series, "Pioneers of France in the New World," "The Jesuits in North America in the Seventeenth Century," "The Discovery of the Great West," "The Old Régime in Canada," and then go on to anecdotes of later American history. Supplement the outlines of English history with striking fragments from Walter Scott's novels; they will serve better than anything else to fix certain historical facts on the childish memory. These are but hints; it is easy to go on when one has once begun.

In reading for young children never forget that you are to

act as *interpreter* between them and an author. Simplify as you go along, substituting an easy word for a hard one, a short one for a long one, and omitting at discretion, but always trying for the best word you can muster at such short notice, and striving always to keep the writer's style as unmutilated as possible. In this way there is but little good reading which you cannot bring within grasp of the childish understanding.

There is Shakespeare! the greatest name in all literature. At first thought his writings seem a great way removed from the youthful comprehension; and yet my own experience has proved that it is possible so to interpret him that even a little child may appropriate him.

Take, for instance, "The Tempest," which is nothing more nor less than one of the most bewitching fairy tales ever written, quite as wonderful as anything of Hans Christian Andersen's, or of the brothers Grimm, or in the "Arabian Nights." Here you will find a witch, a sorceress, a magician with his wand, a deformed monster, a cruel and treacherous king, fairies of the woods and sea, a powerful spirit of the air, a beautiful princess, a brave and handsome prince. It only needs a little ingenuity to make this fairy tale of Shakespeare's a prime favorite with the children. I know from experience, for I have tried it myself, writing it out in prose in the "once-upon-a-time"

style. It is the one story which my little seven-year-old boy never tires of hearing over and over. It is the one story for which my child-friends ask again and again. I should like to try it with some of the bright young readers of *The Christian Union* if it were only possible; I am sure they would want to know more about this wonderful Shakespeare and his writings.

By all means read Irving with the children. Among American writers he is the one who takes strongest hold on the childish imagination. His clear, limpid style is good training for the young ear, and one will be amazed at the quick appreciation these little ones show of his quaint humor. Did you ever see the child that could resist the charms of his "Rip Van Winkle," or "Legend of Sleepy Hollow?" They are the best of fairy tales.

A child's love of the marvelous and exciting is like his craving for candy and sweetmeats; it is a taste that cannot be ignored. You must indulge it wisely. Cater to it with some of Irving's "Tales of a Traveller," or selections from his "Sketch Book," and with wholesome stories of travel and adventure. Then, as an offset to this stimulating reading, make them familiar with such exquisite, tender sketches as "Rab and his Friends" and "Marjorie Fleming." It only needs a trial of them to prove their fitness for this work.

It is easy to get children to read good books. It only needs a little ingenuity, a little painstaking, a little giving up of time and pleasure on the part of us who are parents.

Truly yours,

EMMA H. DEMERIT.

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"SOME BOOKS ARE TO BE TASTED,
OTHERS TO BE SWALLOWED, AND
SOME FEW TO BE CHEWED
AND DIGESTED."—
Bacon.

SUGGESTIONS

FOR

HOUSEHOLD LIBRARIES.

EVERY head of a family, it may be presumed, in this period of general intelligence, is desirous to possess for his wife, his children, and for himself, a certain number of well-selected books. A book-case is, in fact, an indispensable article of furniture. All have books of some kind or other. How shall they be best chosen, and purchased to the best advantage?

The ordinary condition under which the books in a house are brought together, may be described as a chance-medley. They are selected on no system, and, consequently, when the immediate occasion of their perusal has gone by, have very little value. A few old novels which have had their hour, a book of sermons of the preacher in vogue, a broken set of a magazine, a few waifs and strays picked up in charity from itinerants, or from fairs, with, perhaps, a half-dozen leathery old heirlooms, from which the best of housekeepers cannot keep the dust; these, for

the most part, in many families, fill the household book-shelf. What a different story is told in a glance at the well-constructed book-case of a gentleman or lady, who has given a little of the attention to the choice of its contents which would be bestowed upon the selections of the pattern of a window-curtain or a sofa! Yet books are the most telling furniture which can be placed in a room. Every visitor of intelligence is immediately, irresistibly attracted to the perusal of their titles; and an opinion is formed at once, from them, of the taste and cultivation of the family. Pictures and engravings are becoming generally appreciated, and next to a picture on a wall, in point of interest and effect, is the book on the centre-table or the shelf. How deplorable and chilling a dull collection! The reader may recall the anecdote of Dr. Johnson at the house of the eminent virtuoso, Mr. Cambridge. He was there one day, in company with Sir Joshua Reynolds, and had no sooner, says Boswell, made his bow, than he ran eagerly to one side of the room to inspect the books on the shelves. "He runs to the books," said the artist, "as I do to the pictures." There he was gratified, for his host was a man of exquisite taste. How cheerful and inviting the friendly names of good authors and long-established favorities, the Walter Scotts, Maria Edgeworths, Washington Irvings, and Macaulays, reviving a hundred pleasing recollections of past enjoyment, as you approach them! A man, says the old proverb, is known by his companions. How true is this of the companions of our better hours of ease and retirement, the volumes which we keep at hand, the solace and amusement of our cares, the impulses of our noble actions!

All persons, we have no doubt, would have a choice collection of books in preference to a comparatively indifferent and valueless one. But all have not the time or opportunity to make the selection. It is not an easy thing to make a tasteful gathering of any objects—the plants for your garden, the china for your table, the clothing for yourself or your children—in fine, of whatever is thrust before us in heaps, the common and worthless of course preponderating. There is money enough spent annually in the country upon tasteless and absolutely offensive things to purchase articles of the highest taste and value.

It is not the cost of the good article which is so much the difficulty, as the not knowing how to procure it.

The attempt has here been made to present in three lists, the first comprising 500, the second an additional 500, and the third 1,000 volumes, the titles of those books which are considered, on the whole, the most essential and desirable for the family library and for the use of the student of general literature.

It is not likely that the opinions of any one of our readers will be fully in accord with our own as to all the works specified in these lists. Some will criticise the proportion of space allotted to the respective divisions of History, Biography, Fiction, Poetry, etc. Others will complain that some favorite work, which in their opinion certainly belonged in the first list, has been relegated to the second or third, or, *horribile dictu*, has been omitted altogether.

We can only say that our lists are suggestions, not dictations, and that we admit frankly it would be both absurd and use-

less to attempt to present any selection from the vast mass of English literature that would be either perfect in itself, or which would be accepted as perfect by any two readers. We claim merely that these three selections have been prepared with care and judgment, and the two thousand volumes comprised in them are believed to include the most essential and desirable works in general literature.

Theological works, scientific books for specialists, and children's books have not been included.

The first list specifies 500 volumes of books deemed most desirable, on the whole, for a collection limited to that extent. It is intended to suggest those that are most comprehensive and useful, and most accessible in their several spheres. Thus books of reference covering the whole range of human knowledge are first mentioned. Then the most essential works on general and local history and in representative biography—such as occupy the most important ground, and are the most desirable in case the collection remains unenlarged. Then the list mentions such books in general literature as would *usually* be selected by persons of good taste and sound judgment.

Of course such a list is arbitrary and subject to change according to varied tastes or previous acquisitions; but we only aim to indicate an *outline plan*, with reference to proportion, fitness and availability—leaving details to be adjusted according to circumstances.

The second list contains a similar proportion of essential titles in the several departments, as they are deemed most desirable to supplement the selection first given, while in the

third list of one thousand volumes it is planned to supplement the first two lists, and to present with them a collection of two thousand volumes fairly complete as well in works of fact and information as in those of imagination and recreation.

Neither one or all of these lists would provide for all the requirements of a literary or other professional man; the present suggestions simply refer to such volumes as are adapted for family reading and reference, or for social or village libraries.

It is claimed that these lists have been prepared with strict impartiality, so far as the interests of any publishers or authors are concerned. They aim to present works that would be selected by a person of taste, untrammelled by any special interests.

The publishers' retail prices are given as nearly as practicable, and while in a few cases where a portion only of an author's works are recommended, these prices may not be exact per volume, they will be found to be fairly correct for any given number of works.

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PREFACE.

(*Which it may be well to read.*)

This book has been prepared more especially for those about to commence house-keeping, but will, we hope, be found not without interest and value to those of more experience.

The first portion of it, relating to the selection or building of a house, is more general in its treatment of the subject than the portions relating to the furnishing and interior arrangements. We have endeavored to write only of what housekeepers should do for themselves. In a book of this size we could not undertake to give plans of houses and architectural directions. These belong to works on building. But as the careful selection of a house, or the intelligent supervision of its construction, should be the duty of those intending to establish for themselves a satisfactory home, we have treated of these subjects.

But, when the house is ready for occupancy, the real work of the housekeepers commence. They, themselves,

must furnish their home, and, to a very great extent, must depend upon their own judgment and good sense. To aid in this work, we have given very particular and explicit directions in regard to house-furnishing, which is mainly the purpose of this volume.

We have also devoted considerable space to various departments of domestic economy, having in view the needs not only of those of small means, but of persons of good incomes, to whom it is an object to make an economical and advantageous disposition of their money.

And, in treating of the furnishing and general arrangements of a house, we have endeavored to consider not only the ordinary subjects of convenience, expense, etc., but those of beauty, and artistic effect. And with these economy is perfectly compatible, for to make a home tasteful and attractive money is often not so necessary as study and observation, and a little earnestness in regard to the desired end.

For information in various parts of this volume we are indebted to Messrs. Kelty & Co., Edward D. Bassford, Degraaf & Taylor, Lord & Taylor, and Ball, Black & Co., of New York, and James H. Orne, Son & Co., of Philadelphia.

THE HOME.

PART I.

THE LOCATION OF THE HOME.

A COUNTRY HOME.

Under this title we will consider the homes of country people, not the country residences of persons doing business in the city. These will be treated under another head.

There is, perhaps, less opportunity of selection in regard to the location of a country house than in any other instance; for we are very apt, when we buy, or rent a farm, large or small, to give the chief consideration to the land, and to be satisfied, or to endeavor to be satisfied with the house we find upon it. This is often our only course, but it also happens, frequently enough, that a country house is to be built, and the locality of this we will consider.

If there has been a house on the farm, the new edifice is generally erected on, or near, the location on which the old one stood, for there are all the conveniences and outside belongings of the dwelling. If, then, these conveniences are to be considered of the first import-

ance there is nothing more to be said about the location. But we do not subscribe to the doctrine of the domination of convenience which governs so many country builders. We would place the requisites for a good location of a country home in the following order: healthfulness, comfort, convenience. Therefore, in the first place, the house should be on a portion of the land where good drainage is possible; it should be well shaded, but not too much so; and its situation should be as convenient as possible in respect to water, access to farm buildings, the road, and the fields.

This matter of a healthful location is too often entirely neglected in building country houses. A low, damp locality is attractive because it is better sheltered from the winds of winter; water is more readily obtained; the kitchen garden may be of better soil; and, if there is danger of chills and fever, and of rheumatism, these are dangers to which country people have been so long familiar that they have become tired of being prudent. But we might as well live as long and as happily as we can, and, if there is a choice of location, let us build on that which is most healthful, unless circumstances compel us, as they unfortunately sometimes will, to do otherwise.

There is nothing which conduces so much to the comfort of a country house as the shade and protection afforded by trees, and yet bare houses are as common on a farm as bare feet. Very often the first thing done after the site for the house is selected is to cut down all the trees thereon. Absolute barbarity is often displayed in such cases, when grand trees of years of magnificent growth are sacrificed to the mere convenience of a carpenter or mason. There are few things about which we

should hesitate so long as the felling of a fine tree near the future homestead.

To be sure, roots and branches are often great hindrances to cellar-digging, and house-building, and it is so easy to set out young trees! This is true, but it is not always easy to live until those trees have grown to their full size and use. It is well for a place to be pleasant for our children, but it is better to have it pleasant also for ourselves. So, if possible, have trees about your house, or go a little out of your way to find a place where there are trees; oaks, maples, etc., for shade, and cedars and other evergreens for protection against the blasts of winter.

In regard to the convenience of a situation it is not necessary to say much. The country builder is always ready enough to consider this branch of the subject. But it is better to depend for water on a hydraulic ram or a pipe from a distant spring than to sacrifice comfort and health to a well at the back door. And we earnestly advise the country builder to consider that he is a man as well as a farmer—that the health and happiness of his family are worth as much at least as the possible profit from placing the barn on the side of a convenient rise in the ground, and the house wherever it may be most convenient to the stables and the pig pen.

We will be glad to see the day when the barn becomes the auxiliary of the dwelling; when the family is considered first, and the cattle afterward.

To many parts of our country these remarks do not apply. The homestead there is on the finest situation on the farm, and the necessary buildings cluster around as they are needed. But in many localities the magnificent barns and the poor, make-shift dwellings make us long

for a change in that rural sentiment which sets the comfort and well-being of a horse or a cow over that of their human owners.

A SUBURBAN HOME.

This is a general term to designate the dwellings of those who do business in the city, but who live outside of the business limits.

In the first place, as in the former instance, we ought to think of health. Around many cities, great care is necessary to avoid what are called the chill and fever districts. Ill-drained locations; sites near or on new-made ground, or filled-in marshes; must be avoided if you wish to remain on distant terms with that unpleasant acquaintance—the fever and ague. It will not do to depend on inquiries of property holders, or even of the residents of the neighborhood. No matter where you may go you will find that people who have lands to sell are nearly always very favorably impressed with the superior healthfulness of their property. Close and careful investigation will alone disclose the truth. And it is possible to discover it without living on the spot to find out by actual experiment whether you will be sick or not. The investigation may be troublesome, but it will repay all the money or time you spend upon it.

Then, if you intend to buy or build your house the value of land ought to be considered; not only the price at the time but the possible rise and decrease in such price. There are building sites in and around New York which to-day are not worth the money that was paid for them several years ago, and there are, as every one knows, lots that have doubled and trebled in value in the same time. The improving tendencies of

a neighborhood, and the probability of increased accessibility to the business centres, will be considered by every man of ordinary judgment, but it is so easy to be misled in these regards that great prudence, united to a spirit of investigation, is always needed. The representations of agents and owners are almost always apt to show an unnaturally bright side of the picture. It must be toned down by good, hard common sense before you can look at it properly.

Taxes, and probable assessments for improvements, opening streets, etc., always exercise a very powerful influence upon the value of a lot to a man in moderate circumstances. To the rich, the fact that he is obliged to help pay for the opening of a street through the property need matter little, for the expense is likely to be repaid to him two or three fold in the course of time, but it is widely different in the case of a man in moderate circumstances. The hundred dollars which he is required to pay to-day may be worth far more to him than the three or four hundred dollars of increased value that may accrue upon his land in consequence of that expenditure may be worth to him in a few years. The expenses which tell the heaviest upon a young man's prosperity are very often those which beset him at the commencement of his business career; and this fact should be kept in view when seductive pictures of prospective advantages are held before him. It is well to provide for the future, but, if possible, let it be without too great a sacrifice of the present. To be truly prosperous one ought to be *proportionately* prosperous all the time.

Thus much in regard to privations and embarrass-

ments consequent upon drains upon the dimes of to-day in hopes of additions to the dollars to-morrow.

It is generally true, however, that the greater number of those who live in small suburban houses rent their dwellings, and for these, if they secure a tolerably long lease of the premises, it is not necessary to consider the probable rise and fall of the value of the property. If the house be taken from year to year an unexpected increase in rent may make itself unpleasantly felt by the tenant without the possibility of any compensating advantage to him, and a prudent man will therefore endeavor to secure a lease upon a property in which he desires to establish a home. In such cases he not only makes, with some certainty, his calculations as to his expenses for a few years, but he will feel much more strongly encouraged to make improvements in house and grounds. Too many tenants endure privations and inconveniences, little and great, because they think it is hardly worth while to spend money or labor in improvements which, after all, may only be for the benefit of the next tenant. But, with a lease, one may plant with some certainty that he shall reap, and not another.

Apart from the question of the value of the property, as many things must be taken into consideration in regard to the rented house as one that is purchased. In both cases the house is to be lived in, and the tenant would like to be as happy in his home as if he were its owner. Consequently questions of location, convenience, access, etc., should be considered by the tenant as well as the house-owner.

As a rule, rents in the suburbs are not high in proportion to the prices necessary to pay for portions of

houses in the cities. The price of rents depends somewhat, although not as much as circumstances would seem to demand, upon the means of access from the city to the suburb. In many cases rents are quite as cheap when one can travel to and fro in a commodious steamboat, or in the steam cars, as on those long and wearisome lines of horse cars, which now run out of almost all our large cities.

It is probable that in a few years most of these cities will have improved methods of transit to and from the suburbs and outlying country, but, until then, we would urge those who care for comfort, health, and a tranquil mind, to avoid the necessity of connecting their homes and their business by means of the horse cars. Especially in the summer they may be considered as the seed beds of much of the disease of the cities. The extra money paid on the railroad or steamboat will often be much less than the doctor's bills which have their foundation in the packed boxes on wheels that ply up and down the length and breadth of our great cities.

Not only, then, should the time needed to reach your home be considered, but the means of reaching it should be carefully pondered, before making up your mind in regard to its location.

The same remark would apply to the selection of apartments were it not that these are almost always within the city limits, where horse cars are the only means of reaching them. The evil, therefore, must be borne in these instances, if the distance is too great for the reserved power of one's legs.

PART II.

THE HOUSE FOR THE HOME.

THINGS TO BE CONSIDERED.

The man who is enabled to build himself a house ought to be in this regard a happy man, but it does not always happen that he is such. If he fail to avail himself of his opportunities, and finds it out, the sense of the "might have been" will be very depressing. He is in far more unhappy case than the man who takes up his abode in a house all ready to his hand, and who contents himself, of necessity, with things as he finds them.

Therefore, let us think a little before we build, and, as far as possible, govern circumstances rather than submit to them. We have great privileges. Let us not allow them to slip away.

It is not the intent of this volume to give directions for putting up a house, or to inform any one of the best methods of making windows or doors, or the most desirable plans for roofs and stairways. The way to have a good house is to get good men to build it—men who understand their business, whether the building is to be of logs or brown-stone. But we may be permitted to tell the builders what we want, and it is then their duty to give it to us.

And here we will remark that one of the best advisers in regard to the planning of a house is a man's wife—the woman who is to be the mistress of the establishment. She it is who will make the greatest use of the closets, the stairs, the rooms, the cellars, the garrets, the kitchen, the entries, and the pantries ; and she it is who should have the most potent voice in their arrangement. If a mistake is made in regard to these things, the wife will be the greatest sufferer. Give her a chance then to prevent mistakes. Her knowledge of what is needed in house-building to make housekeeping perfect will be of great advantage in drawing out the plan.

Nearly every one has an idea of what kind of house he would like ; but there is a fashion in houses, and, when a builder comes to build, it will often be found that this fashion interferes very much with the comfort and convenience of the person who is to pay for the house and live in it. Take a stand then, and have your house as you want it, no matter how the rest of the buildings in the block or neighborhood may be constructed. If you prefer to sacrifice comfort to appearance and uniformity that is your own affair ; but if you want to have a house that will be convenient and sensible, let your builder know that you intend to have it. This may necessitate a struggle, but a good house is worth struggling for.

To begin then, insist, when you are consulting about your plans, (and these remarks will apply to all houses, whether they cost but a thousand or two, or tens of thousands,) upon plenty of light and ventilation. It is on these fields that your principal battles will be fought. The builder will not object to light and air in

the abstract; but, if narrow windows are the style, he will want to put them in; if open fire-places are not included in his private plans, he will want to leave them out; and, if he is in the habit of putting up half a story at the top of his houses, he will want to put it on yours. But stand up for your own ideas in these respects. If he is not a man to whom you feel you can defer in regard to the execution of the plans, it will be better to drop him at once, for you are, in a great degree, responsible to yourself and family for the suitableness of the plan.

There is no reason why there should be so many badly built houses. It seldom costs more to put up a well-arranged house than one which is unhealthful and inconvenient. Why, for instance, should we not have good, high rooms at the top of the house? A few more rows of bricks, or a little more framework, windows a little higher, and a trifle more plastering, and we have rooms instead of cubby-holes. Nothing to us seems to indicate more plainly a badly-planned house than little hot rooms with low ceilings and contracted windows at the top of a house. The comparatively small amount of money necessary to make these rooms of a reasonable height, fit for the occupation of decent human beings, would be as profitably invested as that expended upon any other portion of the house. But it is not generally the want of money that prompts the building of these low, uncomfortable rooms—it is the want of judgment.

Water in the house is such an immense advantage that it is included in all good plans wherever circumstances will permit. If there is a running stream near the house, a hydraulic ram may be constructed which will force the water all over the house; but if there is

no such stream, a spring may be found at such an elevation as to allow the water to flow through pipes into the house without any mechanical system of pumping, or forcing. And, if there is nothing but a well, a system of pipes, through which the water may be occasionally pumped into the house, will be found of the greatest advantage. Then, there may be a bath-room, water in the kitchen, stationary wash tubs, and a variety of the conveniences of civilization impossible, or nearly so, when the water must be carried by hand into the house.

Even more important than bringing water into the house is that of keeping water out of it. A damp house is not fit to live in. We may make our roofs and our walls tight, and yet our houses may be like grave-yard vaults, if the proper precautions against damp walls and cellars are not taken during the process of building. In the first place the soil on which the house is built should be so drained that the foundations will rest absolutely on dry ground. Then the walls above the floor level should be separated from those below it by some substance impervious to water. Otherwise we cannot always be certain of dry walls. No drains should ever be allowed to run under a dwelling, for any drain may leak, and then disease is almost certain.

These things, apparently the duty of the builder, will often be neglected, if the owner of the house does not see for himself that they are attended to.

Again, especially if the house is in the country, the question of shade should be considered, and it may be that shade without trees must be sought for. We can plant trees where there are none, but we cannot make trees grow to be shade trees for many years. Large

forest trees are sometimes transplanted into lawns with success, but these cases are exceptional. A piazza is a matter more under our control, but it often happens that even piazzas require the growth of vines and the aid of trees before they become entirely reliable for purposes both of shelter and shade. Especially is this the case when it is possible only to have them on certain sides of the house. Piazzas are often of but partial advantage to the new house. In such cases it has been very sensibly suggested that if the piazzas be supplemented with awnings, which, at comparatively small expense, can be made to reach from the roof to posts set up four or five feet outside of the portico, a comfortable shade can be secured at all hours of the day. Broad flaps hanging from the edges of these awnings will greatly assist in keeping off the rays of the sun. A piazza thus protected is a constant comfort in the summer, in rain or sunshine.

When a home is built and furnished, we should endeavor, of course, to guard it from danger ; and its greatest danger is from fire. In cities we place our reliance for safety upon the Fire Department, and upon careful management and oversight of our stoves and grates. But in the country we must generally look to ourselves, not only to prevent fires, but to extinguish them after they have broken out. And it very often happens that, when a house is built in the country, not the slightest provision is made for extinguishing fires. In fact, when a country residence takes fire, it generally burns down ; and the efforts of its occupants and the neighbors are confined to saving the furniture and valuables. It seems almost incredible that persons of ordinary prudence will be content to invest their money

and risk their lives in a house which it may be impossible to save from destruction if a coal should fall upon the floor, if a lamp should upset, or if any of the manifold accidents should happen, which the use of fire always renders possible.

And it is the more wonderful that these precautions are not taken when we reflect how comparatively little they cost. A trifling economy in building, the giving up of a bay window, of an ornamental cornice, of an extra-handsome fence, or of many an adjunct to a building that may be dispensed with without actual discomfort or loss, may enable one to provide the means for extinguishing a fire in his house.

These means are various. If there is a well on the premises, a hose long enough to be carried from the well to the upper stories of the house with a properly arranged force pump, may be sufficient in many cases. Sometimes it may be considered best to have a cistern kept full of water for use in case of fire, or it may be preferred to build a tank in the upper part of the house, which may be kept full of rain water by means of tin spouts connecting with the roof. But, in any case, the recently invented Fire Extinguishers, which are always ready for use, and of the greatest service in case of fires, may be provided, and they may be relied upon with confidence. They will cost about sixty dollars each, and this sum can be included in the estimates of expenses without increasing the sum total, if it be considered that nothing is more important to a house than protection against fire. Do without something else, if you will, but do not do without some sort of fire apparatus.

In this connection we would also urge the necessity

of a trap-door in the roof of every country house. These are often dispensed with because they may possibly allow rain to leak in around their edges; but if they are properly made there need be no danger of this, and their use in case of a fire on the roof is incalculable. With easy access to the roof a man may extinguish with a hose, or a few buckets of water, or some wet blankets, a fire that will be entirely beyond his control by the time he has clambered up an unsafe and insufficient ladder, or has cut a hole through his roof.

It is a very prudent thing to insure ourselves against loss by fire, but it is still more prudent to have within our own hands the means of preventing such loss.

There are many other conveniences which might almost be considered necessities, if comfort is our object, which will suggest themselves to the mind of the thoughtful builder, and which will be of far more use and satisfaction, and much less cost, than many of the tawdry arrangements with which it is now fashionable to adorn the exterior of a house. It is not always money that is needed in these cases; generally it is only necessary to be convinced of the advantage of such adjuncts to a pleasant home. The mind that is satisfied of their value will seldom find insurmountable difficulties in the way of their attainment.

With these remarks, which are intended merely to call attention to some of the points desirable in a good house, be it grand or humble, and which are generally within the means of persons in moderate circumstances, we leave the subject of building.

The person who rents a house is, of course, in a great degree the victim of circumstances, but the foregoing remarks will apply to him in many instances. If he

cannot build, it may be that he can alter, and, if he has a lease upon the premises, it may pay him admirably to make improvements on the place, such as we have suggested, even if he is obliged to leave them behind him when he changes his residence. Three or four years of comfort are not to be undervalued by beings whose earthly existence is so limited as ours.

SEVERAL HOMES IN ONE HOUSE.

The system of two or more families residing in one house, which has long been quite common in Europe, has been adopted of late years in some of our large cities, particularly in New York, where rents have recently been very high. In some cities, such as Philadelphia, where there are so many small, convenient houses, at reasonable rents, a family of moderate means can readily have a dwelling to itself, and there the idea of several families living in one house is received with great disfavor. But in New York it is almost impossible for any one to rent a whole house who does not possess a handsome income, and therefore it is often absolutely necessary to be content with a part of one. In many cases, provided the families are congenial, and the dwelling will admit of separate household arrangements, the joint occupants of a house live together with much comfort and harmony : but to persons unaccustomed to the plan it is often a long time before a part of a house will possess the cherished characteristics of a home. But familiarity not only breeds contempt, but content ; and when we come to the co-partnership system, and find that so many respectable people besides ourselves have adopted it, we

become reconciled to the plan, and consider our part of the house our home as much as if we occupied the whole of it.

There is a system of building houses, arranged in flats according to the French method, where every floor is a dwelling by itself, with all the modern conveniences, and where the different tenants are as private as persons living in separate houses on the same street, which will, if generally adopted, go far to remove the objections to the plan of congregated households; but at present these "flats" are generally held at such high rates that it is often almost as cheap to rent a house as one of them. It is true that they are frequently more convenient than a house would be for which the same rent is charged; but until they are constructed in such a way that they can be had at more reasonable rents, they will not become popular with people of slender incomes.

But, if it is possible to obtain one of these flats or floors that has been constructed on the improved models, it will prove to be wonderfully convenient and satisfactory to families who must live in a house with others. Parlors, dining-rooms, bed-rooms, kitchens, and every modern improvement will be found upon the floor that is rented, and a household may be even more private than if it occupied a house with neighbors on each side of it, and on the opposite side of the street.

The French flat plan may be said to be yet in its infancy here; but if it ever attains in our cities the perfection to which it has been brought in Europe, where it is united with various plans of coöperative household economy, it will go very far towards mitigating many

of the nuisances and reducing many of the expenses of life in a crowded metropolis.

It may be well to state to those who are not familiar with the mode of living to which we have referred, that none of our remarks apply to what are generally known as tenement houses. A French flat house and a tenement house are as different as a gentleman and a boot-black.

PART III.

FURNISHING THE HOUSE.

THE PARLOR.

The kitchen should be the first room furnished; then the dining-room; next the bedroom, and halls; and, lastly, the parlor. This is the order of importance, because eating is absolutely necessary to existence, and refreshing sleep is also necessary, while one might live to a healthy old age without a parlor. The dining-room will answer for the purpose of a parlor in cases of necessity, but this arrangement is not desirable, and is not recommended where there are means to furnish a separate room. But do not have a poorly furnished kitchen, and a meagre dining-room, or an uncomfortable bed for the sake of a parlor.

It is doubtful whether the room we are about to describe is a parlor. It certainly is not in the common acceptation of the word in America, although very applicable in its original signification. For the English word parlor comes from the French *parloir*—a name bestowed upon that room in a monastery, set apart as a reception room for visitors—and that again from the verb *parler*, to converse. And our room will inevitably become the talking-room of the house. But, in this

country the parlor is regarded as the "company-room," entirely distinct from the reception-room, corresponding with the English drawing-room, and the French *salon*, and is applied indiscriminately to the long suite of lofty, elegantly-appointed saloons of the millionnaire, and to the ten-feet-by-ten best room of the fifth story of a tenement house.

And, was there ever an American woman, who, furnishing a house, did not first lay aside the money for the parlor? A parlor there must be, even if after it there come the deluge. And, when this much-desired room is complete in all the splendors of Brussels carpeting, brocatelle, and walnut, the children must not play in it, the husband must not smoke in it, or lounge on the sofa, the sunshine must never look in, even the fresh air is unwelcome, because the open windows usher in the flies, and a fly buzzing about that immaculate room would inspire as much horror as the advent of a chattering girl of seventeen into a La Trappe monastery. When such a room is opened on company occasions the dampness strikes to the bones of the guests, while the touch-me-not cleanliness, and frigid dignity of the grand furniture settle on their spirits with the weight of lead. In country places it often happens that this room is not used half-a-dozen times a year, and, meanwhile, the family room, where all the familiar talk is held, where the children and grown-up people assemble around the evening lamp, and where the minds of the former receive deeper impressions than in all other places, is the kitchen, or dining-room, or possibly some barely-furnished sitting-room, suggestive of nothing but discomfort and ugliness.

It need not be inferred from these remarks that we

consider a private family sitting-room an undesirable thing. It is always a comfort where there is money sufficient for furnishing several rooms, and is useful for a withdrawing room when company becomes a weariness, and also as a general work-room; but still let the parlor be the family room, and if you have a sitting-room, let it be a prettily furnished and attractive apartment, and not a poverty-stricken make-shift. This kind of room is almost a necessity where a family is large, and entertains much company, for it is not to be expected that every member of a large family will always have the time or inclination to entertain visitors, and out of a wide circle of acquaintances there is only a select few that we care to admit to the family retreat. But we do protest against taking the lion's share of the funds set apart for furnishing to adorn a room intended *only* for "company."

The room which we are about to describe is good enough for a parlor, and not too good for a sitting-room. We reverse the order of furnishing rooms that we recommended in the opening paragraph, beginning our descriptions with the apartment of greatest dignity, because thus we will avoid some repetitions that would otherwise be unavoidable.

Let us commence with the ceiling. It is to be hoped, for the sake of comfort, as well as of beauty, that this is high, but if, unfortunately, it should be low, do not have it of a dark tint. White is most generally used, because it looks well with all kinds of wall papers, but it is not always desirable. A delicate pink, or buff, throws down a more agreeable and softer light on bright days, if the paper hangings will allow these tints to be used. If the ceiling is high it may have a

little deeper tinge, if desired—rose or maize color—but even here care should be taken that it is not dark in effect. The ceiling should always be lighter than the walls.

In regard to wall coverings, paper hangings are the most popular, and are used everywhere. Even the rough interiors of log cabins in the far West are often covered with illustrated newspapers, thus economically combining paper hangings and pictures. There is, we think, no style of wall paper to be compared as to beauty with the plain-tint paper. The effect is fine, and yet unobtrusive ; it does not dwarf the size of a room as pattern paper often does ; on it pictures show to good advantage ; it corresponds with any style of furnishing ; and it is always in fashion—or, rather, it never looks *bizarre*, no matter what particular fashion may happen to be popular. There is a prevailing opinion that it soils easily, but this is a mistake ; it will keep clean as long as any paper.

There is a style, forty inches wide, beautifully finished, with a fine soft gloss that gives the wall the appearance of being painted. This sells at a dollar a piece. There are other styles, both glazed and unglazed, some very pretty and of excellent quality for sixty cents a piece.

It is not the fashion now to have an unbroken surface of wall from the ceiling to the base-board. We are, in many matters, returning to old methods, having discovered that our ancestors were not quite devoid of taste, and, among other things, have adopted the wainscotings that were their pride. And, in rooms that are not wainscoted, we also follow their fashion in a like case, and put around the wall, about three feet above

the floor, a moulding called a chair-rail. This serves the double purpose of breaking up the blank uniformity of much space with the same coloring, and of protecting the walls from being scratched and rubbed by the furniture.

This moulding can be used very effectively with the plain tint paper by having a dark tint below it, and a lighter one above; a rich yellow-brown below, and cream color or amber above the chair-rail; or a heavy purple-grey below, and a light stone color above; and other combinations may be made with finer effects than these suggested, by considering the situation of the room in regard to sunshine, and various other matters. These plain-tint papers should have a rather narrow border, with rich, bright colors (something in the style of the arabesque or scroll patterns is most desirable) on very dark grounds, black generally being the handsomest. A narrow gilt bead border for an edging, between the paper and bordering, will be a very pretty addition.

The moulding for the chair-rail should be tacked on where the two papers are joined. Moulding is sold expressly for this purpose, but something suitable can be bought from any cabinet-maker or carpenter for five or six cents a yard for common pine, and ten and twelve cents for finer woods. The former presents a very handsome appearance when stained with black walnut stain.

The narrow gilt bead bordering is eight to twelve cents a yard, and the rich bordering, described above, from ten to twenty cents; but a perfectly plain bordering, in rich dark colors, very suitable for this style of papering, can be purchased for five cents a yard.

But this plain tint for wall hangings is a matter of individual taste, and, if you prefer a figured paper, get a small, cheerful pattern on a very light ground for a room that does not enjoy much sunshine. And it is best to get rather a light paper where the room is sunny, for in winter the brightness is no objection, and in summer the room is kept partially darkened during the heat of the day. Decided greens and blues are very trying to the complexion. A very pretty style of figured paper is all of one color in different tints. But if this is of *very* light shades, it is apt to be characterless, and gives no relief to furniture and window hangings. Stiffly designed figures, great bouquets, and wild and wandering patterns, on the other hand, possess entirely too much character. It is difficult, on the whole, to select figured paper that will altogether satisfy you after it is put on, and if you buy it solely with reference to its individual beauty, you are likely to be disappointed. You are to consider the effect of your walls *as a whole*, and not in detail; and as much taste is needed in designing them as any part of the house furnishing.

Gilded paper is inartistic, although for several years it had the sanction of fashion, and is still used to some extent. Stripes add to the apparent height of a room, but are stiff and awkward, and the eye soon wearies of them. Be careful about the greens in wall papers, for many of them are colored with poisons.

If your room has a chair-rail, the figured paper should only be used above it. The same may be said of striped paper, unless it is in imitation of wood, in which case it can be used below with good effect.

Panel-paper is formed on the walls by using plain-

tint paper in stone colors, and paneling it with narrow bordering that is made for the purpose. This is an expensive style, and is hardly suited to rooms of ordinary size ; but it is very pretty for the lower part of the wall, below the chair-rail, as a suggestion of wainscoting.

The papers sold by paper-hangers as parlor grades are from one to three dollars a piece ; but satin paper of excellent quality can be bought for fifty cents ; and we have seen very pretty walls hung with papers that only cost twenty cents a roll.

In furnishing rented houses, the papering is not usually taken into consideration, as that is the business of the landlord. But, if you find an ugly paper on your parlor walls, do not let it stay there because the landlord refuses to re-paper, when you can have it done so cheaply. There is no need that you should be tormented day after day by an unsightly object. It will be better to replace it with one of inferior quality and pretty design, than to have the pleasant family room disfigured with a leaden colored wall, or a staring, straggling pattern, or some style that is tawdry and vulgar in effect.

Our best wall papers are French importations ; but the American papers are very good ; they last well, and are made in beautiful tints and designs. The worst that can be said of them is that they are not quite equal to the French. Some of them (and pretty ones) sell as low as twelve cents a roll.

Wood hangings are much more beautiful than paper, and it is claimed that they are much more durable. Judging from the fact of their construction and their costliness, they should last a very long time ; but, being a comparatively recent invention, this point

has not yet been properly tested. They make the most beautiful wall covering next to the still more costly painting and frescoing; for the woods are not only beautiful in themselves, but in putting them on there is opportunity for the display of artistic taste in the proper selection of shades and colors, and in arranging designs for the paneling. Those who sell these hangings will send their workmen to put them up, if desired, but this is not necessary, as they are not more difficult to hang than paper.

The prices of American woods range from one dollar to one and a half per thirty-six square feet, and the foreign woods are much more costly. The latter are not much used, except in getting up very elaborate designs, where they are arranged in centre-pieces and mouldings with fine effect. But these things can only be properly done by an expert, and are too ornate for anything but very magnificent mansions. The ordinary grades sold are in American woods, cut very thin, and backed with paper, on which the paste is spread. The paste is made expressly for this purpose, and sold with the wood. The paneling, made of very narrow strips of wood, is three or four cents a yard, and is tacked to the wall.

Hangings of curled or bird's-eye maple, with panelings, and cornice of walnut, would be pretty for a parlor; chestnut and butternut for a dining-room; and oak and walnut for halls and libraries. Walnut hangings should be used only in very large rooms. These woods can also be used plain, without the panels. Some are striped, walnut and maple, chestnut and oak, etc., but woods laid in this way seem more suitable for floors than walls.

A great advantage that this wall covering possesses is that it can be washed as often as desirable without fear of injury. But, much as we admire it, we would not recommend that a whole house be hung with it at first. Better try it in one room, and see if it stands the tests of dampness, heat, and the various action of our changeful climate, for new things should be received with caution.

These hangings are yet too costly too be generally used, but may be employed with kalsomined or papered walls to imitate a wainscot with the chair-rail for the upper moulding.

The wainscoting proper costs a dollar a foot, and is three feet wide. It is made of thin wood, but much thicker than the hangings, is not backed with anything, and is tacked to the wall. It was made originally as an adjunct to the wood hangings but is now used with all styles of walls, and adds greatly to the richness and beauty of a room.

Frescoed and painted walls will retain their beauty for many years, and can be washed and kept clean. In panels and pictorial designs they are very beautiful if well executed, but are, of course, very costly. The plain tints are very desirable for ordinary dwellings, and are not very expensive. But still they are more costly than papering, and painters can only be found in cities or large towns.

After the walls are decorated to your taste, put something on them ; for bare walls, however pretty, need relief. Mirrors will at once suggest themselves. By all means get them, if you have the means. They add greatly to the handsome appearance of a parlor ; and two placed opposite, will convert an insignificant

room into quite a spacious apartment, apparently. Mantel mirrors too are beautiful in themselves, and in the effects they produce. But do not get cheap ones, for then your room will look poor and mean, in spite of all the care you may otherwise bestow upon it. Handsome mirrors are costly ornaments, and, unless you have a pretty large allowance for furnishing, you had better dismiss them from your mind for a year or two. If you have a choice between a mirror and pictures, choose the latter without hesitation. A fine painting will go much farther towards furnishing your parlor. True, the paintings are also costly ; but, fortunately, chromos, which reproduce them so faithfully, are within the reach of all. If you are not a judge of pictures, get a friend who has some knowledge in such matters to select your chromos and engravings, and do not fall into the mistake of thinking that one chromo will do as well as another, for some are nothing but daubs. And the same remark may be applied to paintings, and in their case, a high price is not an invariable criterion of merit.

It is not easy to give a scale of prices for pictures of any kind, as these depend upon so many contingencies, but good chromos of fine paintings may be bought in small and medium sizes, framed in gilt, as low as from $6.00 to $12.00. And here it may be said, *en passant*, that home-made frames of leather, pine-cones, etc., though they will do very well for engravings and photographs, when others cannot be obtained, do *not* suit chromos. Persons who know little about art imagine that if the picture be fine the frame is of small importance ; but artists will tell you that the beauty of a picture depends very much upon the frame—not that

it should be magnificent, but suitable. Let your chromo have some warm coloring about it, and, if it is a figure picture, be sure it is one that the eye will not weary of. Some most admirable paintings treat of such unpleasant subjects that they should be placed only in picture galleries. It is well for the mind sometimes to dwell upon the heroism of martyrs, but to have the reminder constantly before our eyes is not agreeable, and far from being improving. The same may be said of death-bed scenes and battle pieces, both of which are favorite subjects, if we may judge by the frequency with which they appear on parlor walls.

Besides the chromo, have one or two fine engravings if possible. You need not get very costly ones, and they can be glazed and framed in pretty rustic frames for a small sum.

Don't put dabs of card photographs about on your walls, or dispose of them in groups, or let them be seen at all, except when the leaves of your album are opened.

There are other things besides pictures for adorning walls and giving beauty to a room. Two or three brackets with a little statuette, or vase of artistic design, or flower vase on them. Perhaps one somewhere from which trails a vine. Brackets may be purchased at almost any price, from seventy-five cents to ten dollars, and more ; and very pretty vases, statuettes, and a variety of fancy things can be got at small expense.

And, while speaking of ornaments, we must not forget those very beautiful and graceful things, hanging baskets. These can often be made of materials at hand, at no expense whatever. And there are also flower-stands, aquariums, Wardian cases, etc., which

can be made by some ingenious member of the family, or by a neighboring cabinetmaker, at a small cost.

The following is the best way to get these little "fancies." If you have a thousand dollars with which to furnish your house, go over the price-list you have made out for the different rooms, and strike out here and there some article that is of small account, and make up your mind that on this or that thing you will expend a little less money, and be satisfied with something less pretentious. You will find that in this way you will get a neat little sum for ornamenting your rooms without sacrificing anything useful.

Before casting our eyes down to the floor, we will furnish the windows. If the house has been built under your own directions, of course these have inside shutters, (or blinds.) But if they have them not, you will, first of all, need shades, even if you have outside shutters. Very many housekeepers use *only* shades; some because they think curtains must necessarily be costly; some because of the trouble of packing away woolen curtains in summer, or "doing up" washable materials; and others because "curtains only gather dust." To the first class we say that they labor under a mistake; to the second, that we cannot have anything that is very desirable unless we are willing to take some trouble; and to the third that careful management will prevent the evil they dread, and, moreover, that to be consistent they should take up all their carpets, for it is impossible to find a more indefatigable dust-gatherer than a carpet. If shades are the only hangings for the windows, they should be the painted shades in solid colors with borders. Those with figures and landscapes on them are in bad taste. The bor-

dered shades sell at from two dollars upward, with patent rollers. Dark blues and stone colors are popular hues in these shades, but they throw, when drawn down, a most dispiriting gloom over the apartment. Light stone-colors, buff, and shades in fancy browns are the most desirable, and, when purchasing, remember the color of carpet and walls, and do not get a violent contrast. If, however, you are going to hang curtains or lambrequins over them, let the shades be of Scotch Holland linen. You can buy these ready-made, or make them yourself. The linen can be purchased, yard wide, for thirty cents a yard. The rollers and slats of wood for the bottom, slides, cord, and tassels will also be needed. These fixtures and trimmings cost from forty to seventy-five cents a window. Be exact in your measurements, and make and hang them carefully. The patent rollers are much more handy than the cords and slides, and last a long time, whereas the fixtures in common use soon get out of order. The patent rollers cost one dollar apiece. White is the best color for these shades, and the trimmings should be selected in reference to the general coloring of the room. Blue fades sooner than any other color.

And, in this connection, we beg of you not to tie the tassels up in little muslin or knitted bags in order to preserve the color. They will not fade for some time, and faded tassels, which only show that the inmates of the room care more for the blessed sunlight than for their fifty cent tassels, look far better than these vulgar little bags.

In furnishing a room, curtains are of the first importance. Better get a Brussels instead of a velvet carpet, or an Ingrain in place of a Brussels, than to

have your windows bare of curtains. Without them a room filled with furniture looks unfinished, and with them a poorly-furnished parlor gains something of grace and style.

Woolen reps are much used for curtains in winter. They are from two to four dollars a yard ; and, if put up by an upholsterer, from twenty to forty dollars a window. Their heavy folds are rich and elegant, and they add greatly to the warmth and cosiness of rooms with a cold exposure. But they also help to darken the room, and to make a short winter day seem still shorter. Rooms that are *lived in*, unless quite large, will be more pleasant with window hangings of lighter materials.

Silk curtains are only suitable for very handsomely furnished apartments ; should be made and put up by an upholsterer ; and will cost sixty dollars and upward for each window.

Lambrequins are now almost universally used, and, when gracefully draped over curtains of the same or corresponding material, increase the beauty of the effect. But the plain, stiffly-scalloped, heavy woolen lambrequins, without a fold or festoon to break their rigid exactness, that so frequently we see hung over shades or lace curtains, are ugly in the extreme, and the two materials put together in that way are as well suited to each other as a merino basque is to a lace over-skirt.

Lace is the most beautiful, graceful, airy, and light of all curtain material, and looks equally well with the matting, and chintz covered furniture of summer, and with the warm colored carpets, and heavy furnishing of winter. Real lace can be bought now of fine quality and handsome styles, from eighteen to twenty-five dollars a yard,

although there are certain styles that sell at "fancy" prices. It is not as much used now as formerly, even among the wealthy, because the Nottingham laces of the present day are so fine, soft, and fleecy that it is difficult to tell them from the real laces, and the designs on them are generally much more elaborate and beautiful. The prices range from one dollar and a half to fifteen dollars a yard. Those at the first named price are very pretty, and not "cheap-looking;" and quite handsome curtains can be bought at from three to five dollars per yard. The difficulty of doing up lace curtains and preserving that soft fleeciness which is their chief beauty, interferes with their popularity. In cities they are usually sent to persons who make it their business, but this is rather expensive, and, in the country, impossible. But you can do them up to look like new ones if you *know how*, and are careful.*

You can have very pretty and graceful parlor curtains (and these are especially suited to country homes) at a very small expense, by buying a sufficient quantity of Swiss muslin, at fifty cents a yard, and a few yards of heavy silk cord. In measuring your windows, remember that the curtains should fall to the floor, and allow a little for looping back. Get a couple of extra yards, or more if necessary, for the lambrequin, and loop it with cords in some graceful fashion. Also loop the curtain back, at about three feet above the floor.

The following design of a Nottingham lace curtain that we lately saw, was artistic and graceful; and elegant without being suggestive of costliness.

Over the lace curtain, hung in the usual fashion, was a lambrequin of the finest kind of chintz, called *satine*,

* Directions for doing up lace curtains will be found on page 147.

with the lace laid plainly over it. This softened the figures and colors of the chintz without making them less distinct. Across the bottom of this was a cotton fringe, two inches deep, corresponding in color with the *satine*. The lambrequin was then drawn up to hang in heavy folds over the curtain. This style, including cornice of nice finish and moderate width, cost eighteen dollars a window.

If you live in an old-fashioned house, where there is a wide space between the top of the window and the ceiling, you will find lambrequins very useful to hang *above* the windows, in which case, of course, the material must be heavy enough to conceal the wall. The cornice can then be placed high, and the curtains made as long as for larger windows.

Cornices are of gilt, or walnut and gilt. Both styles sell at the same prices, from three and a half to seven dollars apiece, ordinarily; although they run up as high as twenty-five dollars.

The patent extension cornices are of two kinds: the Adjustable, which may be made to fit any window by a little unscrewing and altering; and the Telescope, which can be fitted to a window by drawing it in or out like a telescope. These are from five and a half to fifteen dollars apiece.

Carpets, being the most expensive articles in house-furnishing, should be selected with great carefulness as to quality, that they may last long; and as to pattern, that it be not such as will soon become wearisome to the eyes.

Medallion carpets, large figures, bouquets of flowers, geometrical designs, baskets of roses, stripes, are all undesirable. Any "set" figure becomes tiresome. The

light carpets, of pearl and stone colors, with gay borders, that are now so fashionable, admit of any style or coloring of furniture, and harmonize with all the desirable hues for walls and windows, while the figures of the same shade woven into them are scarcely noticeable. But it is of doubtful expediency to buy a carpet of so very decided a style, as it will look *bizarre* as soon as the fashion passes away. A bordered carpet makes a room look smaller than it is. Scrolls, small interlaced figures, a tracery of vines, or an arabesque pattern (if not large and spreading) are desirable because they do not obtrude themselves upon our notice, and therefore remain in favor for years. The latter, with its graceful lines and figures, without beginning or end, cannot well become tiresome. If a gay floor covering is desired, there is nothing more beautiful than the Persian carpets, where the richest colors run riot in a lovely confusion, without ever becoming glaring or obtrusive.

As you select your window hangings or trimmings with reference to the coloring of your carpet, so your carpet should be chosen to harmonize with your furniture-covering. If you have fixed your fancy upon hair cloth, or very dark colored rep, your carpet should be gay to relieve the sombre effect. If, on the contrary, your furniture-covering is gay, the carpet should be toned down to quite a dark effect. For the medium colors generally used for furnishing, the medium shades are most suitable on the floor, and, in this case, as also in that of the gay furniture, a carpet with one prevailing tint is the prettiest. Browns offer a fine relief to green, blue, or crimson, only, in the case of the latter, they should not be red browns. It is not advisable to have in your carpet a great deal of white for a room

that is much used ; and, on the other hand, a very dark carpet "shows the dirt," as housekeepers say, quite as soon as a light one.

Of carpet material we have a great variety, both foreign and of home manufacture. We make carpets here in nearly all the grades that are imported, and those of standard manufacture are very good indeed, and are durable, although not quite equal to the foreign, on account of the inferiority of our dyes. Any one outside of the trade would find it difficult to decide between an American Ingrain of the best quality and an English. Whatever material you decide upon, let it be good of its kind, for cheap carpets are poor economy. Tapestry, backed with hemp, will soon wear threadbare, and Ingrain which you can almost see daylight through when you hold it up, or which is woven with cotton chain, will not wear long enough to pay for the trouble of making and putting it down. A carpet should be thick, closely woven, soft and pliable. Wilton and English Brussels are considered the most durable of all carpet materials, but they are too costly for common use, and a good Three-ply or Ingrain will last a very long time with moderate care.

The following is a list of the grades of carpeting usually called for, with the ordinary prices per yard :

English Brussels	$2.50
Wilton, (which is cut Brussels)	4.00
English Tapestry	1.35 to 1.50
Velvet, (which is cut Tapestry)	3.00
Three-ply	1.95
English Ingrain	1.75
American Ingrain	1.25 to 1.50
French Axminster	3.00 to 6.00

English Axminster	4.00 to 6.00
American Axminster	3.00 to 5.00

For the room we are considering, either English Brussels, Three-ply, or English Ingrain is suitable; Tapestry is not serviceable enough. In the city it will be best, perhaps, to have Brussels, but it is not a necessity even there. Ingrain, with pretty window hangings, pictures, and ornaments, will make the room look more attractive than Brussels with accompanying destitution; and your friends, in their admiration of the general tasteful arrangement, will overlook the enormity of an Ingrain carpet.

In a country parlor, Three-ply and Ingrain are the rule instead of the exceptions, and therefore you will excite no surprise by laying one of these on your floor. Do not be too ambitious, then, to have Brussels, if you value your peace of mind, for mud and dust are sometimes inevitable, and you will frequently groan in spirit over your expensive carpet. The Ingrain is easily swept, can be taken up and shaken without very great trouble, and can be "turned" when the right side begins to look the worse for wear, whereas a Brussels carpet loses its beauty as soon as the surface is worn.

Carpet lining should be placed under your carpet, as it will last much longer if put down in this way. This is made of fine wool, laid between layers of paper, stretched or quilted. It is moth proof. It is fifteen cents a yard, and is yard wide.

One or two gay rugs, if the carpet be sober-colored, or sober ones if gay-colored, give artistic points of color and effect to the room.

In the spring, carpets should be taken up, well shaken

and beaten, (but not *banged,*) the dust should be beaten out of the linings, the latter rolled around the carpets, and the whole sewed up in coarse linen, and put away in a dry place until the autumn.

It is not desirable to have carpets on the floor in summer. They get filled with dust, they add much to the warmth of a room, and if there is any taint in the air, the woolen carpet is apt to seize upon and hold it. Some writers on health contend that they should *never* be used, for sanitary reasons. But in our country, and certainly in those States where we have such bitter cold weather, carpets, or something similar, will probably be used for all time in the winter season, not only for the warmth they actually impart, but for the feeling of cosy comfort that their very appearance suggests. But in summer we need something cooler, and that is not so retentive of dust and floating exhalations.

Matting is the most popular floor covering for summer. Serviceable Canton matting, of coarse texture, can be bought as low as thirty-five cents a yard, and a very good quality for fifty-five. These are a yard wide. Other widths are a yard and a quarter, and a yard and a half, with prices in proportion. Narrow matting, less than a yard, being scarce, is higher priced.

The custom, that many persons follow, of tacking the breadths of matting to the floor, spoils the floor and is destructive to the matting. Every tack driven in and pulled out breaks at least one straw. These Canton mattings are made on boats, and they are woven together in pieces two yards long. These short pieces are joined together on the shore into lengths of forty yards. Now, where these two-yard pieces are joined they should be sewed across and across, to keep the

joints from opening. Then sew the breadths together, and tack it to the floor in the same way that you treat a carpet. Mattings made in this way will last fully twice as long as where they are tacked in every breadth A good matting should last six or seven years.

Although matting is so popular, some families do not like it at all. Within the last few years a disposition to return to the bare floors of our ancestors—at least for the summer—has manifested itself, and many new houses are laid with handsome floorings to prevent the necessity of covering them with matting. This has given rise to the invention of Wood Carpeting for the benefit of those whose houses are already built with floors that are scarcely presentable. This is made of well-seasoned and kiln-dried hard woods, cut into strips one and an eighth to one and three eighths inches wide, and a quarter of an inch thick, and glued on to heavy cotton drill. The wood is then planed and oiled. It rolls up like an oil-cloth ; can be sent anywhere, and can be laid by any good carpenter. It is nailed down with one and a quarter finishing nails. It can be put down to look like ordinary flooring of one kind of fine wood, or laid with fancy designs, centre-pieces, etc., patterns for which will be furnished, if desired.

It is claimed for this carpeting that it is insect proof; that it is so tight the dust cannot penetrate it, and that it is so thin it does not interfere with door sills, hearth, register, etc., and also that it will last a very long time. But as it has been used only some three or four years, this last point cannot have been satisfactorily tested.

The standard goods in wood carpeting are plain

straight strips of one wood alone, such as Ash, Oak, or Walnut, or alternate strips of different woods. These (yard wide) sell at two dollars a yard. The fancy styles sell by the square foot, from fifty cents to one dollar and a quarter.

Handsome borders in various widths and styles, such as Gothic, Grecian, Rope, Chain, etc., are also manufactured. The usual widths are from five to ten inches, and sell from twenty to sixty cents a foot.

Having fastened down our floor-covering, we will move in the furniture. A parlor suit, as sold at the furniture warerooms, consists of a sofa, one large easy-chair, and one smaller, and four ordinary chairs. Such a suit of solid walnut, plainly finished, covered with good all-wool rep, with upholstered seats and backs for the easy-chairs, and upholstered seats for the other chairs, can be bought as low as eighty-five dollars. One with a little finer finish, and more ornamentation, for one hundred dollars. A hundred and fifty dollars will buy quite a handsome suit, inlaid with French walnut and with ebony mouldings. The lowest price for silk rep covering about three hundred dollars a suit.

These suits will be varied at the option of the purchaser, and it will be well to decline the four chairs, which are never pretty and generally uncomfortable, and substitute two light reception-chairs, a sewing-chair, and one other of fancy straw, or any kind you like. A room furnished with only the regulation suit looks stiff, and unhomelike. Beside these there is a great variety of easy-chairs, rocking-chairs, (both American and Russian,) window chairs, tête-à-têtes, lounge chairs, etc., etc., from which to make a further selection, if your plan allow. A sewing-chair is included in

the above list because our room is both parlor and sitting-room. Where the room is used only for company it will, of course, be omitted.

Furniture upholstered with hair cloth comes at the same prices as the rep. But this sombre, shining, slippery stuff, is, happily, nearly out of fashion. Woolen reps are most used for chair and sofa coverings, and the different qualities range from about two to four dollars a yard ; and the silk reps from six to eight dollars. For costly coverings there are brocatelle, satin and velvet. In a state apartment chintzes are inadmissible, except for summer use, but in this home room the beautiful chintzes now manufactured will be very desirable, and are peculiarly appropriate in the country. They are from thirty-five cents to a dollar and a quarter a yard, and are seen in every possible design, from the most delicate flowers, and gracefully swinging vines, to the shepherd, dog, and crook under the spreading trees, and his sheep sleeping on the hill-side ; enormous bunches of flowers, gorgeous birds, and the fattest Cupids in impossible attitudes. These pictures and huge flowers are revivals of the styles in which our grandmothers delighted, and which have come down to us in bed-quilts and stray scraps. The higher priced of these goods, called *cretonnes* and *satines*, are finely finished ; the latter have a gloss like satin.

In woolen reps green and crimson are the best colors for wear ; and there are beautiful shades in brown that wear very well. Blue fades very soon. The striped reps make handsome coverings for a single chair, but not for a whole suit. It is not necessary to cover all the articles of furniture with the same color ; a little variety gives a more pleasing effect ; only be careful

that you select colors that look well together. If the carpet be very gay, however, it is better taste not to vary much the coloring of the furniture.

A centre-table adds to the home-look of a room, and is, indeed, a necessity where the family gatherings are held. Walnut tables with marble tops range from sixteen to thirty-five dollars, according to size of table and kind of marble. But a much cheaper table of painted wood will look quite as attractive with a pretty cover on it, and a lamp, with its softly-shaded evening light, inviting readers and workers.

A lounge is a very comfortable thing to have in your sitting-room, only don't have it too handsome to be lounged on.

A corner Etagère, or What Not, will cost from five to eight dollars ; a side Etagere from twelve to sixteen. These are sometimes used as book-shelves, instead of receptacles for knick-knacks, where a book-case is unattainable.

The latter, or some substitute, is almost a necessity in our parlors when there is no library. They are expensive articles—a very plain one, indeed, costing twenty dollars, and desirable styles ranging from thirty to sixty-five. A handsome style of book-case is a low one, about four and a half feet high, with a flat top, on which is placed a bust or vase. These are about the same prices as the others. If there is a recess in the room, a very passable book-case may be manufactured by employing a cabinet-maker to construct a framework of shelves, of walnut or stained wood, that can be set into the recess without injuring the walls. The doors must be simply frames for the glass, the panes of which should be large ; tack inside, on the framework around

the glass, woolen or silk stuff, laid in plaits, or gathered up in the centre, and finished with a rosette of the same.

Where there are two communicating rooms, it is best to furnish them alike, and use them in the same way. But some prefer to furnish one for a parlor and the other for a sitting-room, throwing open the doors, or closing them at pleasure ; and this is a convenient arrangement often in cities, where calls are more frequently made than visits. When this is done the window hangings should be the same in both rooms, and the furniture so ordered, as to material, coloring, etc., that the two rooms will not put each other out of countenance.

In the summer you will wish to keep the room partially darkened during the glare and heat of the day, and when flies and dust are waiting for admittance. But use discretion, and do not make it so dark that your eyes are injured by straining them over your work, and your visitors announce their entrance by running up against the sofa, or falling over a footstool. In the winter let in the sunlight freely. You will all thrive on it. Of course this will, in time, fade the most durably colored carpet, but seasons will pass before this becomes noticeable, and an old carpet that is faded is not half as suggestive of poverty of purse, and narrowness of living, as an old one that is " as bright as new."

Such a room can easily be kept free from dirt, dust, and cobwebs ; but some disorder, and what housekeepers call " litter," there must necessarily be in one that is so much used. But you need not worry on this account, for a little comfortable disorder is often much more sensible than stiff, unyielding neatness.

This is the room for all your household gods, so you can have in it your little work-table, with your sewing materials, and the fancy work-basket, containing the bright colored wools, or delicate embroidery. Perhaps there is a chess table, a backgammon board, or box of parlor croquet. Your cat curls up on the rug; your bird sings in its cage by the window; the gold-fish dart about within their little glass prisons; there are flowers here and there, if only a rose on the mantel-piece, or a hyacinth opening its perfumed blossoms to the sunlight on the window-sill.

A visitor ushered into such a room, at once feels at home. A cordial welcome greets him in the very air. It is emphatically the "house-place," and the home life is all around, and suggests topics for interesting and friendly talk. It is all so very different from stiffly sitting in a twilight room, where there is a faint glimmer of white and gold, and a delusive sheen of satin and velvet, and where the hostess sits with idle hands, her heart with her family, her thoughts in her work-basket, and her conversation of the weather, and the gossip of society. No wonder that a half hour is considered a monstrous allowance for such visits as these.

And, when money has become plentiful, and you have added to the modest little home a library, picture gallery, music hall, state bedrooms, and magnificent suits of elegantly furnished parlors, don't fail to keep such a "house-place" for your family and old friends, and the new ones who are worthy of such distinction.

THE BEDROOM.

It is unnecessary to repeat here what has been already said, when speaking of the parlors, in regard to the vari-

ous advantages of painted walls, and wood and paper hangings. The same remarks apply equally well to bedrooms, and the reader is referred to the parlor for all general information on such topics; only it may be well to offer the suggestion that, next to the white-washed wall, (which is entirely out of date,) in sweetness and cleanliness, must be placed the painted wall, and therefore it is peculiarly adapted to a sleeping apartment. But paint is too expensive for a rented house, and even in one's own house is not always easy to obtain.

Beside the wall papers that are sold for all rooms in common, some are designed especially for bedrooms. For those who like a bright, gaily-colored apartment, the cretonne is recommended. Being new in design and fashionable, it is high-priced, being one dollar a piece, and one dollar and a half for the gilded. But those who buy fancy hangings must expect to re-paper often, for a striking design that seems to us beautiful while in fashion, is hideous in our eyes as soon as the fashion passes.

With these gay papers the window-hangings should be of chintz, of coloring and design that blends harmoniously with the wall, but not like it, for we do not wish to see precisely the same things wherever we turn our eyes. White hangings are much used with this paper, but the contrast is too violent to be altogether in good taste, and, if used, they should be of lace. The carpet must be of one color, soft in tone—for instance, mouse color, with a darker border relieved by rich colors in Grecian or Arabesque pattern. White matting might be laid for summer use. The bed-spread may be white or colored, according to fancy. The furniture should be of light-colored wood, finely varnished

—maple is the prettiest—and of a design that is graceful rather than heavy. The easy-chair may be covered with crimson silk. A cool-toned picture, the subject to be suggestive of pleasant thoughts, to be hung on the wall.

Such a room, half bedroom, half boudoir, would, from its brightness and variety, be suitable for a chronic invalid. It could be furnished in cheaper style with light yellow cottage furniture ; chair covered with crimson cotton, and embroidered carpet of mouse color, or soft brown with a tracery of delicate vines.

The more fortunate beings who are not compelled to stay so much in their bedrooms generally prefer a less brilliant arrangement. Some go so far into the other extreme that their rooms are staring and glaring with lightness and whiteness. Because a bedroom should be light rather than dark, it does not follow that carpet, curtains, walls and bed should be as white as possible. We need some variety of coloring in a bedroom as well as elsewhere, and, while it is desirable that it should look " cool " half the year, it is quite as desirable that it should not look chilly the other half.

For the walls, the plain-tint paper is the prettiest. Figured papers in various styles, widths, and quality, are from twelve cents to three dollars a roll, and bordering from three to twenty cents a yard. Where there is such infinite variety it is sometimes harder to select than when we are limited to very few. For very decided coloring, the lighter yellows—buff, maize, amber, and corn-color—or violet, are the least intrusive, and next the blues, and pinks. But a delicate tint is to be preferred for the ground-work of the paper, and in this case pink is the most desirable, as it diffuses a

glow over the white hangings, and white bed-covering; next cream-color, and then a delicate lilac. The light stone-colors are pretty in themselves, but too negative for a room with white furnishings. White is undesirable, and a decided green is inadmissible. Some of the very light, undecided tints in green are lovely; but it is a color that it is not safe to recommend on account of the poisonous dyes that are sometimes (but not always) used in its manufacture.

A chair-rail of oak or maple, Georgia pine, or even common pine, oiled and varnished, will be a pretty addition to the walls, with reddish brown paper below and blush-color above, or any other arrangement of colors that the situation of the room and other considerations may suggest.

If the paper is buff, Holland shades of the same color will be prettiest for the windows, otherwise have white. The tassels of these must be chosen with reference to the general coloring of the room.

Bedroom curtains may be of Nottingham lace, Swiss muslin, chintz, or dimity. The latter is now rarely used. We have seen in country places quite pretty bedroom curtains made of Wamsutta muslin, bordered with chintz, or bright striped calico, or trimmed with white cotton fringe, which were certainly better than having no curtains at all. But chintz hangings at thirty-five cents a yard, are almost as cheap as these; and lovely chintzes can be bought at from fifty to seventy-five cents. Extremely bright-colored ones are not tasteful, unless with an exceptional style of furnishing like that previously mentioned, but neither should the colors be pale.

Chintz curtains can be made with or without lambre-

quins. These should be of the same material, and trimmed, if at all, with ruffles, or with cotton fringe; as this is of suitable texture, and will wash. For looping these curtains back, make a broad band of the chintz, interline with wigan, or something stiff, and trim each edge with a narrow plaited or gathered ruffle; or with fringe, if the lambrequin is trimmed with it.

The white curtains should be looped with silk or woolen cords, and tassels are a pretty addition.

Woolen hangings should never be used in bedrooms, or woolen upholstery of any kind.

Either walnut or gilt cornices are suitable for any of these curtains. Very good ones can be bought for three dollars. Imitations of gilt cornices are very poor affairs, but the walnut can be imitated quite successfully by procuring from a neighboring carpenter a suitable pine moulding, tacking end pieces to it, and staining with black walnut stain. Sometimes these mouldings are covered with gaily-figured, or plain, dark paper, and look very well in a bedroom with chintz curtains, though not as well as the stained wood.

Light colors and small figures make the prettiest bedroom carpets. Here a good deal of white is allowable. English or American Ingrains are the most serviceable. For summer matting you can have white or green and white, or red and white. Wood carpeting is especially to be commended for sleeping-rooms on account of its freedom from dust, and should be of light woods. In whatever rooms wood carpeting is used, rugs should be laid about freely. With a carpet lay a rug in front of the bureau, and an oil-cloth in front of the wash-stand.

A full suit of bedroom furniture consists of ten pieces,

bedstead, bureau, wash-stand, towel-rack, small table, five chairs, and rocking-chair. These are the low and medium priced suits. The more costly ones vary somewhat in number and kind. Wardrobes are made to order, and not included in the regular suits ; but in a large furnishing establishment it is easy to find a wardrobe to match any ordinary style.

You can buy a suit of solid walnut, without towel-rack, plainly finished in a neat style, as low as sixty-five dollars, or one in the same style, but with marble tops on bureau and washstand, for seventy-five. Another style of ten pieces includes a small table with a marble top, also washstand and bureau with marble, and sells for ninety-five dollars ; a handsomer suit, but without table, one hundred dollars ; and a suit of finer finish, and with French walnut panels, one hundred and twenty-five ; and so on up to almost any price.

Oak furniture ranges at about the same prices as the walnut. Chestnut, with walnut finishings, can be got in very pretty styles, from fifty-five to seventy-five dollars. The maple woods are generally very finely finished, and are more costly in the same styles.

In the higher priced suits, a new style of dressing-case is sometimes substituted for the bureau. In these the looking-glass extends to the floor, with ornamental wood-work on each side of the recess thus formed. Sometimes this is in fancy designs—Egyptian obelisks, etc.—but more frequently is fitted with small drawers for the reception of toilet articles. This style will be preferred by those who are furnishing with regard to beauty and fine effect, and who can dispense with the bureau drawers. These suits sell at two hundred and fifty dollars and upward.

The oiled furniture does not compare in beauty with the finely-polished woods, but these are costly, and the low-priced varnished furniture is undesirable in every way. The oiled walnut deserves the high degree of favor it enjoys. It is pretty; can be easily kept clean; does not show scratches readily; and, when it begins to look dim, its beauty can be renewed without expense.*

The style of furniture known as "cottage" is thought by many to be in bad taste; and there was very good ground for this opinion in its early days, when it first became fashionable, for it was too often poorly finished, rough in design, and tawdry in coloring. But now it is well made, and more artistically painted. It is prettier and more desirable than the pine furniture, stained in imitation of the costly woods. It can be bought, or ordered, in any color that you fancy; but French grey, the light stone colors, and soft browns will furnish a room in better taste than the blues, greens, and yellows that have been the rule until recently. The prices range from thirty-five dollars a suit to one hundred. Ten dollars additional will furnish the first named with ordinary white marble tops for the bureau and washstand, which are desirable, not only for the increased beauty, but for durability, as the wooden tops soon become scratched and stained.

The little cane rocking-chair that accompanies bedroom suits is very well; but its five stiff companion chairs can be dispensed with to advantage. You had better get a comfortably stuffed easy-chair, in which you can lounge. Let it be covered with something—not woolen

* Directions on page 149.

—that will correspond with your carpet and hangings. Or you can buy an uncovered one, and cover it yourself with chintz like the curtains. Or your country cabinet-maker will manufacture one that will not cost much; will, doubtless, be rather clumsy, but will be easy, and can be made to look very well. These two chairs, with a couple of ottomans, will probably be all the seats you will desire, as we do not usually entertain visitors in our bedrooms.

The toilet-table, that was once considered a necessary addition to every bedroom, has vanished into remote country places. And yet it is a beautiful and graceful piece of furniture, and redeems a modern bedroom from that stiffness that is too apt to be its characteristic. Those made to set into corners are not recommended. They entirely lack the artistic effect of the larger table with straight back, and semicircular front, that should be placed in a prominent position. These can be clad in the simple drapery of white Swiss muslin and glazed cambric; or in the costly attire of satins and laces.

Have a light table, made of ordinary pine wood, the top semicircular in front, and straight at the back. It must be made so as to stand firmly, but must also be easy to lift; for one advantage of these tables is that they can be carried about the room and placed wherever the light is best. It should be about three feet high, and thirty inches across the straight part.

Tack around this blue, rose-colored, or amber cambric, or any hue that matches or harmonizes with the prevailing tone of the room. Make it a little full at the corners. Get sheer white muslin, Swiss or French; allow fullness enough for it to fall in soft and graceful

folds, without there being enough of it to "stand out" around the bottom, or look "bunchy" at the top; hem the top and bottom; and gather it below the upper hem. With the sewing-machine stitch these gathers firmly to linen tape, laid under them.

Around the edge of the table tack thick cotton tape, or a strip of cotton cloth on which you have previously sewed dress hooks at convenient distances apart, with the hooks upward. On the tape of the valance sew little loops corresponding with these hooks. The valance can then be easily removed for washing, and put on again when clean.

For the top make a cushion half an inch or less in thickness by quilting together pieces of old calico. Over this spread your cambric, and over this again your muslin, turning the edges under the calico cushion, and, in the case of the muslin, tack it so lightly with needle and thread that it can be readily taken off for washing. Lay this on the table, and tack in three or four places with tin tacks to keep it from slipping. These will be concealed by the standing ruffle of the valance. Or a silk cord of the color of the cambric could be run around the edge of the table under the valance ruffle. Or the valance could be made without the little ruffle on the top, and a wide muslin ruffle sewed on the cushion so as to fall over the edge of the table. This is the prettier style, but more trouble.

A pin-cushion should be made of the same material.

A small mirror, with a small-hinged prop at the back, will complete the furnishing. Or you can have a prop fastened on the back of a common looking-glass. The frame can be entirely concealed by drapery of muslin caught back with cords, or tied with ribbon.

A toilet set of plain white china of thirteen pieces will cost seven dollars and a half, and a set of stone china about five dollars. The former is the most desirable, as it looks well as long as it lasts, while the glazing wears off the latter after a time. A Japanese toilet set, including water-carrier, foot-tub and slop-jar, will cost four dollars.

One or two attractive pictures are particularly desirable for a bedroom, as there growing plants are entirely out of the question, and even cut flowers are unwelcome unless inodorous. The only desirable fragrance in a bedroom is that imparted by perfect cleanliness, and by pure, sweet air; with, perhaps, a faint breath of lavender in the sheets.

We have arrived at the bedding last, and yet it is first in importance, surely, in a room which is set apart for sleeping. To begin at the foundation—various kinds of springs, noiseless, elastic and durable, can be bought for from five to eight dollars. It is not easy to tell which of these various patents is the best. One is desirable for one thing, and one for another. But two things may be definitely said: first, that good springs are better than any kind of sacking, slats, or under bed; and, secondly, when buying springs you should examine them to see if you can easily get at every part to clean them, otherwise they will only prove harbors for vermin. Spring mattresses should never be used.

The most comfortable bed is one good thick hair mattress laid on elastic springs. If two mattresses are used the under one should also be of hair, as straw and husks nearly neutralize the elasticity of the springs. The retail price of hard hair is seventy cents a pound, and the mattresses sell at the same rates. Forty pounds

is the weight of a mattress for ordinary double bedsteads, and it will consequently cost twenty-eight dollars. Soft hair sells at sixty cents a pound, and a bed made of it at twenty-four dollars. A straw underbed will cost three dollars, and a husk one five and a half. Where a feather bed is used a mattress must, of course, come between it and the springs; and here, as the feathers are so elastic, a husk mattress will do, but hair is far preferable. Geese feathers sell at a dollar a pound, and a feather bed consequently will cost forty dollars. A very costly article, and except in some few cases, an undesirable one.

Ordinary pillows weigh from three and a half to four pounds; five pounds will make quite a large one; although some like monsters of eight and ten pounds.

A bolster weighs about six pounds.

Cotton ticking for feather beds comes at thirty-two cents a yard; for hair at twenty-five; and for straw and husks at eighteen. The imported linen ticking is sixty cents for the seven-eighth width, and eighty cents for yard and a quarter wide.

Thick, soft, fleecy blankets of fair quality can be bought from ten to fifteen dollars a pair, and the finer grades from fifteen to twenty-five dollars.

Very pretty Marseilles bed-spreads are from four to six dollars apiece; and some neat styles, but of rather coarse quality, as low as two and a half.

Sheetings, both in linen and cotton, are from two and a quarter to two and a half yards wide. The first is wide enough for ordinary bedsteads. The sheets should be two and a half yards long; and made with one hem wider than the other, so that the top can always be distinguished from the bottom. You can get cotton sheet-

ing heavy and good, and of medium fineness, for fifty cents a yard; and the linen is from one dollar and twelve cents to two dollars. Pillow-case cottons and linens are five and six quarters wide. The cotton is from twenty-five to thirty-six cents a yard, and the linen from seventy cents to a dollar. Three pairs each of sheets and pillow-cases should be allowed to a bed, but, if several bedrooms are furnished, this proportion will be found greater than is necessary.

Pillow-case covers made of linen, and prettily trimmed and ornamented are now much used to lay over the pillows during the day. They make the bed look prettier, and conceal the tumbled appearance that pillow-cases that are slept on must necessarily have, and they keep clean a long time.

In Europe linen sheets are universally used by the better class, but they are not as common in this country as very many persons have a prejudice against them, considering them unsuited to our climate, and unhealthful. There can be no such objection to linen pillow-cases, however, and it is not at all out of place to use them with cotton sheets, although linen sheets and cotton pillow-cases would look strangely enough.

Bed hangings, those ancient health-destroyers, being entirely unsuited to the modern bedstead, are, fortunately, obsolete. But some persons who still have the old-fashioned "four-posters" imagine that they give beauty to what has it not by hanging a strip of wavy lines, or festoons of cotton, silk, or woolen around the top. Thus treated, they remind one more of a tall girl who has outgrown her clothes than of anything else.

But, whatever you do with your "four-poster," don't have it cut down under the impression that you thereby

make it resemble the modern styles. Usually the only virtue ancient furniture possesses is that it looks ancient—that is its one redeeming quality. To our modern eyes the four-post bedstead is an ugly and clumsy invention, but the queerly-turned, or elaborately-carved posts have a quaintness that pleases the fancy, and an attractiveness apart from beauty. We associate them with the dames of olden times arrayed in their wonderful farthingales, gay bodices, towering head-dresses, and trains of shining satin ; and with the stately cavaliers in velvet coats, lace ruffles, silk breeches, diamond buckles and flowing wigs. We can imagine them all bedecked for the ball, practising the steps of the minuet that had to be so perfectly executed, or studying the best way of making their elaborate bows and curtsies under the shadow of this very "four-poster." We may reasonably suppose that you keep it where it is, because it is an heir-loom, an old family piece, around which cluster tender memories. But, cut it down, and not even illusion remains to invest its clumsiness with the grace of poetry. It becomes at once a hybrid monster, like nothing else that was or is under the sun; and we find out then that instead of being a dear old friend that you cherish, it is only a poor relation of whom you are ashamed, and would gladly be rid.

We are apt to forget of how much importance is a good bed, and a pleasant and healthful room to put it in, until we reflect that our Creator has so constituted us that one third of our whole existence is passed in sleep. This is Nature's great restorer, and we must help her in her kindly office by doing our part to make all the conditions favorable to the development of the highest degree of health.

A bedroom should be light, airy, and cheerful, and, above everything else, well ventilated. "To sleep in a room without a fire," is often cited as a highly proper and healthful thing to do. And it may be to sleep in a room where the fire is not kept up at night, but to sleep where there has been no fire during the cold season is quite the contrary of a healthful practice. In our climate, in both the Northern and Southern States, every bedroom that is occupied should have a fire lighted in it during the winter, at least for a short time *every day.* If you are obliged to keep up a fire at night, lower the windows at the top. A fire is oftentimes a great purifier. Not that we advise a hot bedroom, or indeed any *hot* room, but it must be borne in mind that the important thing is, not to keep the room cold, but to take such precautions that a sufficient quantity of fresh outside air shall be regularly supplied. Furnace heat, although objectionable in some respects, is certainly desirable for bedrooms, for the one reason that it can be let in or shut out at pleasure.

THE DINING-ROOM.

If, on visiting a house the first time, we are ushered into the parlor, and find it elegantly appointed, we have no reason to suppose that the other rooms at all correspond with it. The bedrooms may be bare and uncomfortable ; the dining-room dark, half-furnished, etc. If we are received in a bedroom, and find it all right, we may be almost certain that the parlor is, at least, equally well furnished, but we have no guarantee for the dining-room and kitchen. But if, by any chance, we happen to see the dining-room first, and find it an

attractive room, completely furnished, and in good taste, we may regard it as positive proof that the whole house is ordered in the same complete and attractive manner. For, although a dining-room may be one of the first rooms in the house sufficiently furnished to be used, it is generally the last to receive the finishing touches of grace and beauty.

It is well, even when furnishing with slender means, to distribute the pretty things throughout the house with tolerable equality, so that the dining-room shall receive its share. For it is not (or, at least, should not be) merely an apartment to hold a table and a sufficient number of chairs to place around it, where we may eat three times a day, getting through the meals as speedily as possible ; the only pleasure anticipated or desired being the tickling of our palates by delicate flavors. Our meals should be social gatherings, to which we look forward with pleasure from other motives than those of gormandizing, or even a necessary satisfying of our hunger. A hearty liking for the good things of the table is natural and healthful, and should be encouraged by abundant food appetizingly prepared, and not repressed by meagre fare and badly cooked dishes. But the family meeting, the pleasant talk, the joking and laughter, (and plenty of it,) should be, certainly, quite as eagerly desired. And such meetings might be extended to a much greater length than is the usual custom, with advantage to the family enjoyment and the family health. To accomplish all this effectually the surroundings should be complete and comfortable, and suggestive of pleasant thoughts.

Dark walls do not suit a dining-room any better than a parlor or bedroom, and, in fact, precisely the same

rules hold good here as have been already laid down for the furnishing of parlor and bedroom walls as to coloring, and the various advantages of painted walls, wood hangings, and different styles of paper. Of the latter, however, one style may be mentioned that is not admissible for either of those rooms, except for wainscotings, but very suitable for a dining-room wall—the oak paper, which is an excellent imitation of wood, and sells for thirty-five cents a piece. It is very pretty, though not as handsome as the higher priced and more delicately colored papers, but has its advantages. It is perhaps a questionable recommendation to anything in a dining-room, to say that "it does not show dirt." And yet, as flies will invade a dining-room to some extent, do what you may to prevent it, and as it is expensive and troublesome to re-paper frequently, some consideration must be given to the fact that the medium color of the oak paper does not show fly specks like the more delicate tints on the one hand, and does not "show dirt" as soon as the dark paper on the other.

An oak chair-rail can be run around the room, breaking up the uniformity of this paper, while adding to its general wood-like appearance. Or the oak paper can be used for wainscoting, and above a pale brown, with a little dash of color, finished with a black and gold border.

In describing parlor and bedroom nothing was said about the wood-work, because where this is of fine woods it will, of course, be simply oiled or varnished to bring out the graining, and where of common wood white paint is so universally preferred that it seemed useless either to praise or depreciate it. On the whole it is, perhaps, the most suitable for a parlor, and desir-

able for a bedroom where paint is used at all. But there are several light colors, very pretty for the latter room if used in harmony with the wall colors—a very beautiful light green tint, for instance.

In case your dining-room or bedroom has never been painted, if you oil the wood with raw linseed oil, giving it three coats, and varnish it with white varnish, it will probably please you better than paint, even if the wood-work is nothing but pine, and the more knotty it is the prettier the grain ; and you will find that the color will deepen with age.

Parlors and bedrooms may be grained in imitation of the handsome woods, but it is not altogether desirable, except sometimes for the doors. But for dining-rooms it is the next best thing to having the fine wood itself. Oak, maple, or chestnut are desirable (walnut is too dark) and all woods can be successfully imitated ; but *be sure that the grainer is an artist in his business.* This is absolutely essential, for badly grained wood is obtrusively and staringly ugly. If you have the room painted, it should be in a medium and neutral tint that is in harmony with the walls. A violet grey will harmonize with the oak and brown mentioned above.

Hang white or buff shades at the windows. If the walls are oak, the shades should be white, and the curtains should also be white, or of very light, or bright-colored chintz. The lighter or medium shades of green or crimson are the most desirable for solid-colored woolen reps. If the walls are quite light the window hangings may be of more sober tints, if desired. Reps with a gay flowered stripe down each width are very handsome. The orthodox style for dining-room curtains, according to the laws of upholsterers, is rep in

winter, and lace in summer. Fall curtains of woolen rep help very much in giving the dining-room the appearance of being fully and elegantly furnished when there is really not very much in it, and they impart to the room a cosiness and warmth, and richness of coloring; and here are not open to the same objection that was made to them for the parlor. They are desirable, but by no means necessary. The lowest priced, made of good material, would probably cost about sixteen dollars a window, not including the cornice, and they could only be used in winter. Lace looks well during the whole year. But this, perhaps, is rather more costly for a dining-room than you would desire, as the cheapest could not be put up under twelve dollars a window.

White Swiss muslin makes a simple and pretty drapery, but for a dining-room the heavy chintzes would be more *en règle.* The satines come in a variety of beautiful designs, and are heavy and glossy. They are from one dollar to one and a quarter per yard, and require no extra trimmings. The cheaper chintzes will also make quite pretty hangings.

For this room an oiled or stained floor, or wood carpeting, possesses the most advantages. They are handsome, too, and should have a bright drugget laid under the table, and a richly-colored rug in front of sideboard and hearth. But, if you prefer a carpet, get a Three-ply or Ingrain with small figures, or mixed grounds, and in medium colors. Brussels is not at all out of place, if you wish a carpet of a costlier kind, but you must remember that careless servants are necessarily much in this room, and that many feet will tread over its floor, and that when the surface wears from a Brussels its day is done. Do not have such a very

nice carpet that you feel you must cover it up with a drugget, except a narrow strip around the edge, left to show that you have a carpet. There is not much enjoyment to be got out of one's possessions if they are put out of sight. And, besides, it is of doubtful economy. An experienced housekeeper would tell you that the colors are very apt to fade under the drugget, and that the dust that will inevitably sift through it on to your carpet will not add to its beauty.

But a crumb-cloth of linen or woolen drugget may be laid under the table to prevent the carpet from being greased, or otherwise soiled. Linen drugget sells at about one dollar a square yard, and woolen at one dollar and a quarter. The above objections do not apply to crumb-cloths, as they are so frequently taken up.

Anything is better on a dining-room floor than oil-cloth. It is bare, cheerless, and inelegant, and gives to servants much unnecessary cleaning.

Matting can be laid down for summer.

Extension tables are now almost universally used as dining tables. A plain substantial one of walnut, that will seat twelve persons, can be bought as low as fourteen dollars, and quite a handsome one for twenty ; and so they grow in price as they grow larger, heavier, and more ornate. Other American woods sell at about the same rates.

Dining-room chairs of walnut, oak or maple, with cane seats, well made, (and not with the different parts merely glued together,) are thirty-six dollars a dozen. Made of cheaper woods they are twenty-four dollars a dozen.

It is by no means uncommon to see very prettily furnished dining-rooms without a sideboard, as they are costly and not essential, particularly where there is a

china closet convenient. But get one, if you can afford it, for they are very useful, and are now made in such beautiful styles that they are very ornamental pieces of furniture. Handsome ones in walnut, oak, and maple can be bought for forty dollars.

If you have no sideboard, a table should be placed at the side of the room for the reception of the extra dishes, plates, glasses, etc., which will be needed during the meal. During the summer there should also be a small table with a marble top, on which the water-cooler should be placed. If an ice pitcher is used instead, it can be set on the sideboard, or side table. If the water-cooler is kept on the sideboard it should stand in a deep waiter that the marble may not be injured by the drippings from it through careless handling.

As regards ornaments for this room, let me entreat that you will not keep there on exhibition a wax dessert. Ice cream jellies and cakes are not precisely objects of art, and though they look attractive and pretty to us in connection with the suggestion of delicious flavor, when placed before our eyes in wax, hint possibilities that perhaps your table does not realize.

Statues, busts, and statuettes, though they adorn banqueting halls, are entirely out of place in ordinary dining-rooms, and vases also, unless they have something in them—grasses, plants, or flowers. A clock is allowable, but it is often an ungracious reminder that the dinner is late, or that the pleasant party has been a long time at the table. In fact, small ornaments are here in questionable taste, except the candelabras and ornaments of quaint, rich, and heavy designs that are manufactured expressly for dining-room mantels. Failing these, supply their places with grasses and flowers.

There is no room in which flowers and plants are as welcome. You cannot have too many of them. Put cut flowers on mantel, table, and sideboard, and have plants growing in the windows or on flower-stands in front of them.

Pictures are in good taste, and highly desirable, but not of fruits or desserts. These, unlike the wax abominations mentioned previously, may be very beautiful or ingenious in themselves, but when we have the real thing before our eyes we care little for the representation, and if we have it not, do not care at that precise time to be reminded of it. And pictures of dead game are not altogether pleasant and appetizing for dining-room walls. If you have fine paintings or chromos of "still life" you had better hang them in any other room than this, if you wish them to be fully appreciated.

THE KITCHEN.

A white-washed wall is best for the kitchen, as it is pure and sweet, and can so easily be freshly whitewashed whenever it is soiled. The whitewash can be colored if a tint is desired. This makes a prettier wall, but has the disadvantage that, whenever any place becomes soiled, (and accidents are not uncommon in kitchens,) a white-washer must be called in to repair the mischief, whereas the ordinary whitewash can be put on by anybody sufficiently well for this purpose ; and thus no greasy and unsightly spots need ever be seen on the kitchen wall. The ceiling and walls should be whitewashed at least twice a year.

Painted wood-work is not desirable ; it soon looks dirty, unless washed very frequently with soap, which

process soon wears off the paint in spots. The wood, left in its native state, requires a great deal of hard scrubbing ; but if oiled and varnished, or simply oiled, will keep clean a long time, and can be easily and quickly wiped off with a little water.

In many kitchens, especially in the city, window shades are a superfluity, for the rooms are quite dark enough without their aid ; but, if your room happens to be so light and sunny as to make shades desirable, Holland linen in grey, light brown, or deep buff, will make very serviceable ones. Or they can be made of solid colored calico, if wide enough, which will not fade in the sun, or by washing. But muslin curtains will generally be preferred to the shades, as they soften the light without shutting it out. Get two and a half, or three yards of wide, white, " cross-barred " muslin, at twenty-five or thirty cents, and make a plain curtain, without fullness, with a string run through the hem at the top, that it may be drawn back and forth ; or, what is better, hang it on a rod, with the old-fashioned curtain rings. If a more artistic arrangement is desired, get two widths, gather, and sew the tops to a tape, and tack to the inside of a lath two or three inches wide. Put on short end-pieces, and stain the little cornice thus made with black walnut stain. These curtains are somewhat troublesome, as they have to be washed frequently, but they are easy to do up. They should not be starched stiffly. Half curtains of muslin are often sufficient for kitchen windows.

If the flooring is smoothly and evenly laid, the cleanest and least troublesome method of treating it is to oil it well two or three times a year. It does not soil easily then, and when soiled can be washed readily, and

without scrubbing. If it is not in proper condition for oiling, stain it with black walnut stain. This will probably have to be renewed every spring and fall, but is not difficult to do, and will cost less than fifty cents for each application. In the winter you will need to lay strips of carpet in front of the tables. It is easy to sweep these uncarpeted floors, and there is no dust rising from them and mingling with the food that is being prepared. But we are far from commending the use of bare floors, that are neither stained nor oiled. These require too much soap and sand scrubbing. They suggest tired backs, and weary arms, and aching knees. Housekeepers should arrange everything as far as possible to avoid scrubbing. It is very hard labor, performed in a painful position, and motives of humanity ought to lead us to lessen it wherever we can. Servants complain bitterly of this work, and in England there is a painful disease known as "Housemaid's Knees," that is produced by this very scrubbing. And then, too, it takes a great deal of the servant's time to very little profit.

Oil-cloth is generally preferred for kitchen floors, but it is costly when good, and no other is worth putting down in a room where it will be so hardly used. The best American oil-cloth is two dollars a square yard, and you can get a fair quality for a dollar and a half, but scarcely for less. And it has the disadvantage of the unstained floor—it has to be washed very often. True, it ought not to be *scrubbed*, and especially with lye soap, but servants will do it unless closely watched. They imagine they clean it sooner this way ; and more oil-cloth has been worn out by servants' scrubbing than any other means—the lye soon eats its way through the

cloth. But, if it should not be scrubbed in this way, it has to be washed very frequently, and is easily soiled. Wood carpeting is not more costly than the best oil-cloth, and is not open to the same objections. Indeed, where the floor is badly laid, it is the best covering for it.

Carpets are not suitable for kitchens, not being cleanly enough, and they are troublesome to manage, as they have to be shaken so often. But, if the room is very cold, a square of carpet may be laid in the middle of the floor, fastened down by rings at the four corners, which rings are slipped over smooth-headed tacks driven into the floor.

If, however, you choose to cover your kitchen floor with a carpet, Rag is the best, because it is thick and heavy. It should not be laid in separate breadths, but regularly made, and tacked down only in front of the doors and places where it is liable to trip any one up, and there as lightly as possible, so that it can be taken up with little trouble. For it should be well shaken twice a week.

A dresser is indispensable in a kitchen, and, if you rent a house without it, insist upon the landlord putting one up. If you have one made under your own directions, let it be large enough for two wide closets below, and three narrower ones above. The upper closet should be far enough above the lower to allow the top of the latter to be used for a shelf, or rather, a sort of table. The lower closets should be at least two feet in depth. In the one nearest the fireplace, keep the cooking utensils; in the other, the small stores of flour, corn-meal, sugar, coffee, tea, etc.; also the spices, box of stale bread, and whatever is to be used in cooking; it is the place, also, for the pastry-board, bread-bowl,

and rolling-pin. This latter closet must, of course, be provided with some shelves. It is well to have above these closets a row of drawers, in which to keep the kitchen table-cloths, towels, ironing-blankets, etc. If there are no drawers, a couple of shelves in an upper closet can be appropriated to these things.

The upper closets should be a few inches less in depth than the lower, and two of them filled with shelves. The smaller one of these is intended for a place of temporary deposit for meats, butter, oysters, soup-stock, preserves, fruits, and everything of this kind prepared for cooking, and presently to be used, instead of standing, sometimes for hours, on the tables, catching the dust and attracting the flies. This is the place for the salt-box. And here, too, may be kept the pieces set aside for beggars. In the second closet, also with shelves, the kitchen china is placed. The third should have but one shelf, at the top, on which may be kept the soap, washing soda, starch, and anything that is not used every day. Below this is a clear space, in which the tins are hung. Some persons like to see these disposed around the kitchen walls, and they have a sort of homely beauty, but they necessarily get dusty, and their brightness dims sooner when thus exposed to the moist air, and they will therefore require more frequent cleaning.

If there is no laundry, in which to keep the implements for washing and ironing, try to dispose of them in some other place than the kitchen. The flat-irons can stand on the mantel-piece, and you may, possibly, find room for the wash-boiler in a dresser closet; but the tubs can be put in the cellar, and the clothes-

baskets, skirt-board, etc., in some closet or unoccupied room.

You will need two tables, of unpainted and unvarnished wood, and on these the servant can exercise her gift for scrubbing, and bestow upon them the attention that the oiled floor does not need. The size of the tables depends somewhat upon that of the kitchen—one three and the other five feet long are the usual sizes; and they will cost respectively three and five dollars.

Ordinary painted wooden chairs are about seventy-five cents apiece. You will, probably, require three or four. The best chairs are of oiled ash, or common maple, with broad, low seats, and bent backs, and are a dollar apiece. To make these wooden chairs more comfortable, cushions may be made of ticking, and stuffed with hair, with calico covers that will slip on and off readily, as they will have to be frequently washed.

A very popular article of kitchen furniture is one that can be converted into a table or settee at pleasure.

The kitchen should have a clock, and it must be one that is warranted to keep good time, for on it a great deal of the comfort, and some of the good temper, perhaps, of the family will depend. Three dollars is probably the lowest price for a good common clock, and yet the very cheap ones do sometimes keep in good running order for years. It is a good plan to keep it locked, and wind it yourself, not always for fear that the servants will tamper with it, and change the hands to suit their convenience, but because they are careless and will neglect it, or wind it recklessly, and injure it; and

besides, if you set the time yourself, there can be no disputing about it.

Beside these things you will, of course, have a sink. Painted iron ones are now considered the best. It should not be smaller than two and a half feet long, and a foot and a half broad.

These are all the things necessary for the furnishing of the room; they are few and inexpensive. The furnishing of the closets will cost very much more, for in them are enclosed the most important articles of kitchen furniture. A list of these is given at the end of this volume. It is very full, and it is not absolutely necessary to get everything mentioned there at once if you do not feel able to do so. Select what you need for immediate use, and add to your store from time to time until you have completed the list. For there is nothing set down there that is not necessary for perfect housekeeping. And, indeed, many things are omitted on the list that are very desirable, but not essential, and which should be bought if there are means for the purpose. Some of these articles are set down under the regular list as "Extras," but others are necessarily excluded. The labor-saving machines, pea-shellers, apple-parers, raisin-seeders, and others, being patent inventions, are rather expensive, but will be found of very great service in all families, and more especially in those where but one servant is kept, often saving the hiring of extra help.

The kitchen is pre-eminently the cooking-room, and, in furnishing, that should be kept in view. But it is also, in most houses, the servant's evening sitting-room, and ought to be made comfortable for her. If the floor is uncarpeted, and the room is cold, let her have a little

square of carpet to lay on the floor in the evening, and if there is no gas, let there be a good hanging lamp that will throw down a bright light, and some hanging shelves with a few books and papers might suggest to her employment for a leisure hour.

HALL AND STAIRWAY.

A hall, properly speaking, is a wide and lofty apartment, from which, generally, not necessarily, rises a spacious, imposing staircase. Such a hall requires several articles of furniture, a sofa, a settee, or something of that kind ; some high-backed, stately chairs, with low, wide seats, leather covered, a table, a large hat-stand, with mirror ; the walls adorned with stag horns, curiosities, and a picture ; perhaps brackets and busts ; large vases are on each side of the doorway, and niches are occupied by statues.

But in America we call our narrow entries halls. In the ordinary city houses one article of furniture—a hat-stand and umbrella-rack combined—makes the hall quite crowded ; and in the country, where they are somewhat wider, the addition of a table and couple of chairs fills them to their utmost capacity.

Such narrow halls should have carpets laid down without borders, as these only make them look narrower than they really are, except in the case of a very short entry, when a border makes it look longer. Ingrain carpeting is not used for halls and stairways, but the heavier Venetian takes its place. This is sold in various widths—the best, if yard wide, is two dollars and a half a yard, and the other widths in proportion. It can be got of fairly good quality at lower prices, but as an entry does not require many yards, and

as it has rather hard usage, you should get the best if possible. English Brussels is the same price, and in texture wears equally well, but in time the colors rub off, and it cannot be turned like the Venetian. Wilton, having a cut pile, wears still longer than the Brussels. So does good Velvet, as that also has a cut pile, but there is no carpet to which dirt so quickly and pertinaciously adheres as to this, and it is very hard to sweep. You can put the same grade of carpeting on your halls and stairway that is in your parlor, or a lower one, but not a better grade. If Ingrain is on your parlor floor, Venetian must clothe the hall, but if you have Brussels in the parlor, you can still have Venetian in the hall, or you can have Brussels, but not Wilton, or Velvet.

The carpet should be alike on entry and stairway, and if you are furnishing two or three flights, it is good economy to furnish them all alike, though this is not necessary. If the carpet does not extend quite to the walls, it is admissible to have a strip of painted floor, but it is not desirable, and does not look as well as to sew a border to the carpet. On the stairs, on the contrary, the carpet should not extend entirely across, but a space should be left on each side which can be painted, stained, or grained.

In measuring for stair carpet you should allow a little piece at top and bottom to run under the hall carpet, and also half a yard extra to allow for moving it up or down whenever it is put down after shaking, as this constant moving prevents it from wearing at the edges of the steps. Stair pads should be laid under the carpet, as it will then last twice as long; they also make it look richer, and feel softer under the feet. These are

layers of cotton quilted between cotton cloth, and can be bought from two to three dollars a dozen, according to width.

Stair-rods vary so much in width, length and design that it is impossible to say precisely what are best for any particular case. It may be generally stated that the nickel rods are from ten to twenty-five dollars a dozen; the brass from one dollar and a half to eighteen dollars, and the wooden (of all kinds of wood) from one dollar to twelve.

In wet weather it is well to lay down a strip of linen or woolen drugget on the hall carpet, otherwise snow-slush or mud will be tracked over it, notwithstanding the mat at the door. But it is not well to keep it down when the ground is dry.

A floor laid with fine woods, nicely oiled or varnished, is more beautiful for a hall than any carpet. Next to this the wood carpeting is most desirable. Gay mats should be laid at all the doors opening from the hall.

Oil-cloth is frequently used for halls, but it is not easy to see what advantages it possesses. It is neither floor, nor carpet; has the unclothed look of the former without any of its richness and beauty; and the figures and flowers of the latter without any of its warmth of coloring, or its suggestions of comfort and completeness; and it is more expensive than the former, and quite as costly as the latter. It requires a great deal of washing, and will have to be replaced as soon as it is a little worn, or it will give a poor appearance to the house. For every housekeeper knows that her house is judged by the first impression produced on her visitor's mind by the hall.

If oil-cloth is laid in the hall, you should put paper

under it wherever the sun will be likely to shine much upon it, otherwise it may stick fast to the floor.

Within a few years a new article has been manufactured that bids fair to take the place of oil-cloth. It is called Linoleum, and is made of cork and India-rubber, put upon a canvas back, like the oil-cloth. It is pleasanter under the feet than oil-cloth, is more durable, and is thought by those who have used both, to be superior to it in every respect. It is two dollars a square yard. It is an English manufacture.

The prettiest style for the walls is a wainscoting of walnut, with wood hangings above of solid oak, or the oak might be paneled with some walnut, but not striped. Avoid stripes whether of wood or paper.

If the wall is painted, any of the light tints are suitable ; but if the hall is wide, and very light, a dark shade may be desirable.

Panel paper is appropriate for a hall, even if not spacious, because its narrowness, in connection with its comparatively great length, and the open stairway gives an impression of height, and this is why stripes are objectionable. Grey, or stone color, paneled with dark brown, will probably be most satisfactory.

If figured paper is used, it should not be of vines or flowers, but of mixed, indistinct patterns, and as nearly as possible of one tint, or else delicately shaded. Embossed papers may also be used in halls, if they can be found in the proper colors, but the decided hues, such as crimson and green, are there entirely out of place.

The same paper should be used all the way up as many halls and flights of stairs as the house contains, except in the case of panel paper, when, if preferred, the paneling can cease at the end of the landing of the

first flight, and the plain tint continued the rest of the way. It is not, of course, necessary to continue wood hangings and painted walls beyond the first flight of stairs.

Marbled papers are not pretty, and, as not even the stupidest person actually supposes for a moment that your walls are built of solid marble, there is really no illusion in them.

There is no place where wainscoting shows to the advantage it does in a hall. Walnut or oak may be used with any style of paper. And so can any other wood you may fancy, but these two seem most appropriate for halls.

If you cannot afford a wainscoting, have a chair-rail of oak or walnut, with the same colors above and below in different shades—a dark stone-grey below, and a light stone-color above, is perhaps the prettiest combination for a hall.

A gas-fixture, or lamp of graceful pattern, should be suspended from the ceiling in the middle of the hall, or between the stairway and the front door.

THE SERVANT'S ROOM.

If you have secured a good servant, one of the surest ways of retaining her is to give her a comfortable room; and, if she is not a very good one, perhaps the feeling that her comfort is cared for, will help to make her better. In calculating the expense of furnishing a house, the servant's room should invariably be included; and if you cannot at once buy all that is set down in the List at the end of this volume, you can by contrivance and some trouble manage to provide her everything necessary except a good bed. That you will have

to buy, for this to her is the most important of all, and a home-made mattress is generally a very poor affair when made out of old materials, and if you buy the hair and ticking, it will cost more than the mattress ready made; for the upholsterer purchases his materials at so much less than you can that he can afford to make up a mattress and sell it to you for what he would ask you for the hair that is put in it, and make a good profit.

Straw is too uncomfortable for an upper bed. Husks are better, but are not by any means soft. Cotton and wool mattresses, if made by an upholsterer, are more comfortable for a little while, but they soon get lumpy. The latter are a good deal used in England, but judging from the descriptions and advice given in English Household books of quite recent date, the middle classes of that country have yet to learn what constitutes a really good bed. Americans, being Sybarites in this matter, have reached perfection as nearly as our present knowledge allows. What luxurious couches may be reserved for the future we cannot, of course, know; but our noiseless elastic springs, and cool, clean, light hair mattresses are exquisitely comfortable. We have universally adopted the low French bedstead, and we believe that we are indebted to them for the spring mattress which suggested the different arrangements of springs now made. The spring mattresses are almost out of use. They soon got out of order, were difficult to put in order again, and afforded safe refuges to bugs.

The bedstead for your servant's room is not of much importance except that it should be low, and should screw so tightly together that bugs cannot get into the

cracks. Very good single bedsteads of wood or iron can be purchased from four to six dollars. For three dollars you can fit it with a set of springs. If you get a husk or wool mattress it will be more comfortable laid right on the springs than with a straw bed under it. The same may be said of a hair mattress. Hard hair is best, but the soft hair wears very well, and is ten cents a pound cheaper. A single mattress of the former will cost about fourteen dollars, but it will last for years before it will have to be "made over," and then, with perhaps the addition of a little hair, can be made as good as ever, and serve for another term of years. A mattress of soft hair will cost from ten to twelve dollars.

Mattresses in this room, and also in all the bedrooms, should be furnished with covers that can be taken off and washed. A blue cotton check, at twelve and fifteen cents a yard, is sold expressly for this purpose.

Allow for the bed three pairs of cotton sheets, each one and a half yards wide, and two and a quarter long. Cotton at twenty-five cents is very good for this purpose. As there is but one pillow, three pillow cases will be sufficient. A pair of thick all-wool blankets of sufficiently fine quality, can be bought for five or six dollars. These, with the addition of a neat cotton coverlet, will complete the bed furnishing, except that in very cold weather a comfortable may be needed.

A table with a small looking-glass hung over it, will answer for toilet purposes, though a bureau is to be preferred. There should also be a wash-stand and its furniture, and a low, cane-seated rocking-chair will be a comfortable addition.

Rag carpeting for the floor will cost a dollar a yard,

and can be bought in very pretty stripes. An American Ingrain with cotton chain will cost no more, and will look much prettier at first, but is not to be recommended for wear.

Or the floor can be stained, and strips of carpet laid by bedstead and bureau ; or a small square in the centre of the room.

It is better not to paper the walls, but to have them whitewashed twice a year.

At the windows hang Holland shades, or curtains of pretty calico that is light in color, and that will not fade in the wash.

PART IV.

HEATING THE HOUSE.

So many houses, both in city and country, are now supplied with furnaces or fire-place heaters, that stoves are not usually included in Furnishing Lists. For this reason we have said nothing about them in our remarks on furnishing; and also for the better reason that there is no article of household use of which it is so difficult to speak particularly as stoves, so great is the variety, and so diverse the reasons for which each is recommended. Indeed, to visit a large stove warehouse, one would scarcely believe there were such things as furnaces and fire-place heaters, but would certainly come to the conclusion that the whole world used stoves. Forty varieties of cooking stoves, and nearly thirty of parlor stoves, may be seen at one establishment—positive proofs that furnaces in the cellar, and ranges built into kitchen fire-places, are not, by any means, the rule in American homes. To define all these styles, and point out their separate advantages, is, of course, impossible in this book. And yet we cannot pass over in silence such an important matter as heating the house.

To keep the whole house warm, used to be considered very unhealthful. What particular advantage there was in going from one heated room to another through a cold entry, or from the torrid zone of the sitting-room into the frigid atmosphere of the bedroom, where one had to depend upon his own supply of animal heat to keep the bed warm, and was afrair to stick his nose out of the blanket to encounter the cold air, it is difficult to see. Doubtless our ancestors thought that warmth was enervating, but the rooms that they did heat were at the very highest temperature; enough, it would seem to us, to deprive the strongest man of his strength. We would not thus call in question the wisdom of our progenitors, if the same idea did not linger in the minds of some of their descendants. There are persons now who will keep two or three rooms at a temperature of ninety degrees, while all the rest of the house is as cold as a vault. This is neither comfortable nor healthful.

Furnaces are greatly praised by some, and decried by others. "So healthy," say the first, "just the air for the lungs—so clean, no dust and ashes in the rooms, so economical of fuel—so little trouble, with only the one fire to attend to—rooms look so pretty without the ugly stoves." "Such dry, unwholesome heat," say the latter, "and terrible for weak lungs—a great trouble, for the fire is never just right, and if the room is cold, we have to go down one or two pairs of stairs to see what is the matter, and the servant never attends to it properly—such extravagance in the use of fuel, just as much required whether to heat one room or six—the rooms are so cheerless and ugly, with no bright fire." It is surprising how such totally opposite conclusions can be arrived at in regard to any practical thing.

Where people of equally good sense and sound judgment so widely disagree, the inexperienced are somewhat at a loss what to do.

For ourselves, we think, on the whole, a house is better heated, in a sanitary sense, by a furnace, because all the walls are kept dry, which is a matter of very great importance. At the same time, we admit that the direct heat is dry and disagreeable, and probably not as healthful altogether as the stove heat, and certainly less so than that from an open fire. For bedrooms that are only used as sleeping-rooms, the furnace is desirable because the room can be kept at a lower temperature than a sitting-room, and still be warm, and all dampness kept out, and the heat can so easily be shut out at night. The servant's room can also be warmed by a register, and generally servants are not to be trusted with stoves.

We would secure the advantages of a furnace, and obviate its disadvantages by having open fire-places in all the rooms, so that they can be used whenever desired, and by using them regularly in the sitting-room, and dining-room; burning in them either wood or coal, as preferred. We would thus use more fuel, it is true, but the difference would not be great, for the furnace fire must be kept so low that the temperature of the house shall not rise above sixty degrees, and thus fuel will be saved there. This we regard as the most desirable way of heating a house for comfort, health, and pleasantness.

Where parlors and sitting-rooms are not occupied until the evening, and dining-rooms only during the meals, wood will be found the cheapest fuel, even in places where it sells at high prices. For a wood fire

can be made with but little trouble, and will so speedily become a bright blaze that it will need only be kept burning while the room is occupied. A few sticks of wood will make a cheerful fire during a whole meal, and change the dry atmosphere of the room into a more healthful one ; and it will not require much wood to keep up a fire the whole evening in a room where the air is already tempered by furnace heat.

Instead of open fires, stoves can be put up in these rooms, and used in the same way ; but half of the cheerfulness and brightness of a room in winter is driven out when the fire-place is closed.

The secret of regulating a furnace-fire so that the heat shall be uniform throughout the day, lies in the simple fact that it must be attended to systematically. When you have so arranged the fire that for one day the heat has been uniform, and of the temperature you desire, attend to it always thereafter in the same way precisely. This seems like a foolish direction to give, as it is so self-evident, but it is the very thing many housekeepers never learn, not only in regard to fires, but everything else. They do not even make the same kind of pie exactly alike two days in succession.

Many country houses are so built that it is not safe to introduce furnaces into them. But fire-place heaters can be put into any house. These are stoves set inside the fire-place with pipes running up to the rooms above, into which the heat is introduced by means of registers. Three rooms can thus be comfortably heated with one fire. These stoves are of different kinds, and vary in size to suit large or small rooms, and cost from seventy-five to ninety dollars to put up with pipes, registers and all complete.

With forty, and perhaps more, different kinds of cooking stoves from which to make a choice it would seem as if every housekeeper could be suited. The fault with most of them is that there is no place for roasting meats, and a great many have no proper conveniences for broiling. When you are buying, look out for these things ; and see also that it does not burn fuel to waste ; that the oven is properly situated for heating with no great addition of fuel, and that the stove has a revolving grate, so that it can be readily cleaned out. A cooking-stove for a medium-sized family will cost about eighteen dollars, and so on, down to twelve, and up to twenty-five. They are sold with or without the proper pots and kettles.

The self-feeding base-burners are very popular parlor stoves. The coal is poured into a funnel-shaped receptacle which is in the top of the stove, and drops slowly from the mouth of this funnel on to the fire below as the coal burns out, and the fire "settles." This saves trouble, as the receptacle has to be filled only once a day. The ordinary sizes for families are from fifteen to thirty dollars.

Very pretty open stoves are sold for parlors, bedrooms, etc. They are furnished with grates, and in most of them either wood or coal can be used. A small size, suitable for a bedroom, can be bought for six dollars, and the medium sizes are from eight to twelve.

The old and familiar gas-consuming stoves still retain their popularity, and are from nine to fifteen dollars.

These are only a few of the great variety of coal stoves, and there are also quite a number of different manufactures of wood stoves. These range from five and six dollars up to twenty.

In whatever way you heat your house, try to have an open fire in the family sitting-room, if it is possible. A wood fire is much to be preferred, but coal will do. It will not cost very much, and the little extra trouble it gives is not to be compared with the enjoyment the family will all derive from it, to say nothing of the positive advantage of keeping the air pure and sweet.

PART V.

KEEPING THE HOUSE.

SERVANTS.

These seem to be regarded as necessary evils, and yet they should be comforts. Many a beginner in housekeeping exclaims, "I can get along with everything but the servants, and I look forward to contests with them with real dread." Our servants are, as a rule, inefficient, careless, and unskillful, and very independent of the good opinion of their mistresses. But, if you are so fortunate as to get a good servant, and, if you inquire into her history, you will generally find that her *first* mistress knew how to train her and to win her respect and affection. The treatment that a girl receives in the first two or three years of service, and the teaching that she then has, determine the whole future character of her service. A great deal can be done with a servant who comes to you young and inexperienced ; and something can be done with an older one who has passed through years of mismanagement, by being a little forbearing with her faults, and kindly pointing them out to her, instead of sending her away in a week.

If you can once get a servant to regard you as her friend, your task is half done. At present there seems

to be an antagonism between mistress and maid—the mistress looks upon the maid as some curious sort of animal, entirely different from herself, for whom she must be constantly on the watch ; and the maid regards the mistress as an enemy, of whom she is to take every possible advantage. You can never make a friend of your servant by treating her familiarly, and joking and gossiping with her. She may, at first, be pleased with this, but she will lose her respect for you, and the engagement is almost sure to end in a bitter quarrel. The best way is to regard her as a member of the family, to whom is due a certain amount of consideration and attention, and from whom you demand in return consideration for your wishes, and obedience to the rules of the house.

Suppose that you had with you a young girl, the daughter of a friend, would you allow her to form associates of whom you knew nothing, and to go out in the evening with young men, and stay until nearly midnight, without knowing where she was going, and the character of her escort? Extend, then, the same surveillance and authority over the young servant girl, who is as much a member of your family as your young lady visitor, without the careful culture to keep her from evil ; and who, perhaps, has not a friend in the whole country capable of advising her. She will resent it, you say. That is very probable. Young girls, of all classes, resent the authority that interferes with their pleasures. But that is not a sufficient reason for giving them a loose rein to do as they please.

When your servant goes out in the evening, insist upon her return before the regular hour of closing the house ; and, if she is young, inform yourself of the

character of her associates, and what families she visits. Teach her how to dress in a neat and becoming manner. Show her how to select goods, and to harmonize colors; and, if possible, sometimes go shopping with her. Take some pains to induce her to safely invest her surplus money, instead of spending it on cheap jewelry, and cotton laces. Put into her mind the ambition to excel in her art, not only because it is a good thing to do in itself, but that she may make money. This is an incentive in all other trades, why not in this? If you do all this with the right feeling in your heart, and in a kindly manner, depend upon it your servant will appreciate it at its proper value, although she may be a little refractory at first, and you will reap your reward in securing to yourself a zealous and skillful helper, and a faithful and attached friend.

The usual plan pursued by mistresses is to leave a girl entirely alone, to dress and act as she may please, and choose what companions she will, so long as her work is done. The train of evils that follow is only what might be expected. The girl chooses to spend her leisure time with gay companions, and is very apt to form improper associates; gets more and more fond of pleasure, and consequently loses ambition about her work; grows slatternly, lazy, indifferent, and impudent; and the mistress sends her away, and says, "I knew it would be so! She gave promise, at first, of making a good servant, but the truth is, they are all bad alike."

The girl thus turned away gets a half-hearted recommendation from her mistress, and soon finds another home, which she speedily leaves; and thus she drifts about from place to place at medium wages, which

grow less as she gets older, or she marries some fellow as thriftless as herself.

Some ladies do not allow any "followers" at all, but this is going into the other extreme. An occasional visit from a young man of good principles will do your servant no harm. It helps a servant very far towards doing well when her mistress takes an interest in whatever most engages her thoughts and affections. She has her hopes and ambitions; her cares and sorrows; and, above all, she has her family ties; and sympathy and affectionate interest are as dear to her as to other women.

Try, too, as far as your means will allow, to make your servant comfortable. It must be somewhat discouraging to a woman who has finished a hard day's work to go up on a cold winter's night to her room where the temperature is forty degrees, and to go shivering to sleep on a "lumpy" mattress on which she could not sleep at all if she were not so tired. And, even if your means are somewhat straitened, you can, by the exercise of a little ingenuity, manufacture articles of furniture that will be quite comfortable, and will give the room an attractive appearance. Above all, she should have a good bed.

But these matters are treated of more fully elsewhere in this volume, and it is only necessary to add that, if possible, some way should be contrived of warming the servant's room in winter. Unless you have one that you know you can trust, and that you have good reason to think will remain some time with you, it would not do to put a stove in the room; but in these days of furnaces, and fire-place heaters, it will be only a trifling expense to carry the heat from some part of

the house into the servant's room through the safe mediums of a pipe and a register.

In this country, where there is such diversity in ways of living and expense of living; where the population is crowded in some places, and sparse in others; servants' wages necessarily vary so widely that it would be impossible to have a fixed scale that would apply everywhere. And, in fact, the scale is more evenly balanced than it would seem at first sight, for, in the many localities where the compensation is small, the cost of living is also small, and servants are allowed certain privileges that enable them to do quite as well as those in other places where wages are much higher But a great deal may be said of the *comparative scale of prices* in each locality, and it is a lamentable fact that, with few exceptions in our household service, unskilled labor commands very nearly as high wages as the skilled. This is especially true of female servants. Here and there will be found an exceptionally fine cook, nursemaid, or laundress, who will command exceptionally high wages. But, in most cases, an ignorant, untidy girl, who has never learned to do any one thing exactly as it should be done, and who, moreover, does not care to learn, will ask and get very nearly, if not quite, the same amount per month that is given to a fairly good servant, who is tidy and careful, and anxious to do well. It is true that the latter is likely to keep the place, and the former to lose it, but she does not much care, for she soon finds another at the same price. This seems like offering a premium to ignorance and carelessness. And certainly no man could expect to prosper in business who paid to thriftless, careless, ignorant assistants the same salaries that he gave to

skilled and competent men. It is well known, too, that the prospect of increased salaries is a great incentive to the ignorant and careless to do better. But what inducement have our servants to improve when they get paid at first as much as they can ever hope to receive? It is difficult to point out a remedy for this evil, which is really the foundation of much household mismanagement. Nothing can be done in such a case by individual effort. The only way would be for housekeepers to coöperate in fixing a scale of wages suited to the particular locality, and to pay servants in proportion to their skill.

The time allowed servants as their own also depends a great deal upon the customs of each section; and upon some other contingencies, such as the number of servants in a family, the hours for meals, and the style in which the family live. But, as a general thing, good management on the part of the mistress will give a servant nearly all of her evenings. She is on hand, if wanted, but she needs her evenings for rest from physical labor, and to do her sewing, in order that she may present that tidy appearance upon which you insist. And some part of every Sunday should be allowed her, and an occasional afternoon or evening for visiting her friends.

Something must be trusted to the honesty of servants. It is troublesome to lock up every pound of sugar, butter, etc., and dole it out in the exact proportions in which it should be used. These proportions cannot always be estimated to the grain, or the fraction of an ounce. You cannot be sure that the new barrel of flour, or bag of coffee is precisely, in every respect, like the last. And, besides, it is questionable if this

practice does not injure the servant out of all proportion to the small gain to the mistress. A really dishonest servant no one would wish to keep, and pilfering from these small stores will soon be detected, and followed by dismissal. They will sometimes use articles a little more freely, perhaps, than you would give them out. But they cannot waste much if the mistress is at all observant; and, as was said in the opening of this paragraph, some trust must be placed in them.

But the large supplies should, by all means, be kept under lock and key. Many persons who are honest under small temptations cannot withstand great ones, and a servant who has free access to a barrel of flour, and bag of coffee, and box of tea, might be tempted to take a little sometimes. She knows that it is not likely to be missed from so much. And there are generally evil and greedy counsellors among her associates to whom she confides the fact that she lives where there is an open store-room. But it is not only for this reason that the store-room door should be locked. If you are sure that you can trust your servant not to take a grain, we should still say: Lock up the store-room. You do not know what day you may lose your servant, and replace her with one of whom you know nothing. If it is your usual habit to keep the door of the store-room locked, the servants will not feel it a hardship, and will not complain. It is the most orderly way of housekeeping. Your store-room and its contents are then entirely under your own control—there is no wondering where things are, no waste, no confusion, and, what is better than all, no cause for suspicion.

ARRANGING THE WORK OF THE HOUSE.

The work must be reduced to a system. If it is done in a hap-hazard, whatever-comes-uppermost fashion, both mistress and servant will always be at work. System is necessary, whether you have one servant or half a dozen, and, in the latter case, it is impossible to get along without it. But, where you have only one or two, it is best not to trust to them to do their allotted work, just as it seems convenient to them, for even experienced servants, who work well, seldom are good planners. That is not the business they have learned, and they expect to be directed. You know the wants and ways of all the members of your household, what little comforts they desire, and their hours for pleasure and business. So you are the one to arrange the work in such a manner that it will fit in snugly and comfortably with all these needs, and duties and pleasures. For this fact must not be lost sight of—that housekeeping is the art of *making a home*—it does not consist in keeping a house spotlessly clean, or getting the most work done in a given time, or in perpetually making something to tempt the appetite, or in straining every nerve to save money. Neatness and industry, and good wholesome cooking and economy, all belong to housekeeping, but everything must be made subservient to the grand central idea—so difficult to define even with many words, but so easily understood when expressed in one—*home.*

It is comparatively easy to arrange the work so as to get a great deal done in a very short time, if you choose to make everything bend to that. But it is by no means easy to mark out a system that shall suit the

peculiarities of the master of the house, (for every man cherishes an ideal of household comfort, and in his own house he naturally expects to realize it,) that shall give the children comfort and pleasure ; that will not prove a restraint to your guests ; that will not keep your servant in a flurry and worry, and will give her some leisure time ; and that will enable you to give some portion of your time and thoughts to other matters than housekeeping. It is not easy, but it can be done. It will require time, patience, love, and some experience. Even after you have it marked out, it will have to be changed and modified, possibly abandoned altogether, and another commenced ; but at last you will bring it as nearly to perfection as anything can be in this sublunary world. And, once fixed, it will last your lifetime, unless your circumstances change greatly.

But, after your system is fixed, and in good working order, do not fall into the mistake of thinking that nothing will ever interfere with it. That would be making a discipline and a burden of what should be a comfort ; and, instead of a home you will have a sort of House of Correction. For a fearful thing under the sun is one of those excessively neat and systematic housekeepers that will not allow her arrangements to be put out of joint the least bit, not even by her husband, who has, most likely, bought everything the house contains, nor by dear little Charlie, or Mary, whose happiness and love is worth more than all the household systems ever contrived. You must expect things to be "put about" sometimes for the accommodation of different members of your household, but it will not be for long, and the machine will run just as smoothly as ever as soon as the brakes are up.

It is evident from the foregoing remarks that no housekeeper can arrange a system of work that will be exactly adapted to another, but the following rough plan is offered as a suggestion to be filled up, altered, or changed altogether, as may suit the convenience of each household :

PLAN OF WORK FOR THE WEEK.

MONDAY.

This is the almost universal washing day of America. Housekeepers like to begin the week by doing the heaviest work, that it may be off their minds ; and there is a feeling that the soiled clothes must be got out of the way as soon as possible. Therefore Monday has become a household bugbear. Slop and suds all day in the neighborhood of the kitchen, a soapy atmosphere all through the house ; a " picked-up " dinner, the mistress hard at work, heated and worried ; the children in mischief, and the husband wondering what demon of misrule invented wash-days. Where there are servants enough to release the mistress from helping with the work wash-day is something less of an evil, but still bad enough to be dreaded by all the family. Now by changing the day to Tuesday, and by making all the preparations for the great event on Monday, this terrible ordeal may be so simplified and systematically carried out as to cause little or no annoyance.

Therefore in our plan, Monday is not washing day,

but a day for doing odd jobs, such as washing windows, brightening the silver, cleaning stair-rods, etc., etc. A host of them will come crowding into the housekeeper's mind, and she will find that the day is not long enough to get them all done, and some must take their turn on the next Monday. There is that closet you have so long been anxious should be cleaned ; that jar of preserves to be attended to, or they will spoil ; and various incidental matters of this kind in addition to the "odd jobs." Monday will be a busy and a much valued day. It is a good time to select for all these extras, just after the rest of Sunday, and before the regular rush of the week's housework begins.

But you must save time from this work that your servant may, towards evening, help you to prepare the clothes for the next day's wash. Direct her to divide them into three parcels, the fine, the more common, but not much soiled, and the really dirty. While this is being done you can put down on your list the number of articles of each kind. It is well to do this, even with honest servants, for, if anything is missing, the owner is sure to insist that it was lost in the wash, and the list will at once show whether the charge is correct. Have ready three tubs of cold, soft water, and put in the clothes, having first rubbed soap over the parts most soiled, and leave them to soak all night. Then have the wash-boiler rinsed out, set on the back of the stove or range, and filled nearly two thirds with cold soft water.

TUESDAY.

As soon as the breakfast is served, the boiler must be removed to the front of the stove. When the water

boils, put into it half a teacup of washing fluid,* and a piece of hard soap, about two inches square, cut into shavings. Put in the fine clothes, and boil them twenty minutes. Take out with as little water as possible, and without wringing, put into clear, cold water. If there are any soiled spots remaining on the clothes, they should be rubbed out before wringing from this water into the bluing water. The tub of bluing water is set near the other, so that the articles shall fall into it from the wringer.

Put your second division of clothes into the boiler, in the same water from which the fine things were taken, and repeat the same process ; but, if you have a third boiler full, it will be better to prepare fresh water.

Take the clothes out of the blue water, and rinse in cold, soft water, wring out, and hang out to dry.†

With this plan of washing, and fair weather, the clothes will all be hung out by noon, unless the wash is very large, and the servant will have the afternoon for cleaning up the kitchen and wash-room, putting away the tubs, boiler, etc, and making herself tidy. In the evening, the fine clothes and most of the starched things are to be sprinkled and folded, ready for ironing, and the bread is to be "set," for the next day's baking.

WEDNESDAY.

The baking this morning need not be as large as that done on Saturday, and it should be done as early as the morning work will allow, so that the servant may not be hurried in beginning the ironing, and do

* Directions for making washing fluid, page 113.

† For further directions in regard to washing, see page 148

her work badly. She can easily do the ordinary fine ironing of a family and her other work in this part of a day. But, if there is much ruffling on ladies' dresses, and fine work on children's clothes, it will require a whole day's hard work to do it, and, in such a case, the mistress should hire some one to assist, or do all the ordinary housework herself. In the evening, the plainer and coarser clothes are to be sprinkled, and folded for ironing.

THURSDAY.

In the morning the ironing is to be finished. Where it is stipulated in the bargain that the servant should have half a day every week, this is the best afternoon to give her. It is the leisure interval between ironing and sweeping; and, as it is the day usually given by housekeepers, it enables the girl to meet her friends when she goes out.

FRIDAY.

Besides the every day sweeping, dusting, and putting to rights, it is necessary to devote one day in the week to this special duty, and Friday suits best for the purpose. The sitting-room, dining-room, halls, and stairways must be swept often, but once a week will be found generally sufficient for the rest of the house. To do this thoroughly and well will require the whole of a day in addition to the ordinary work. In the evening the bread must be set to rise for the next day's baking.

SATURDAY.

This is the busiest day of the week. There is the regular morning work; then the baking; then the

scrubbing and scouring. [It has been shown in a former part of this work that much scrubbing, which is now thought necessary, may be avoided, but still there are some things that must be scrubbed, only let there be as little of it as possible.] And the latter part of the day should be occupied in preparing everything for the next day, so that Sunday shall be a day of rest for all as far as practicable. The whole breakfast can be so arranged as to occupy but very few minutes in cooking, and, in winter, nearly everything for dinner can be prepared ; and, in summer, most things will keep well on ice, or in a cool cellar. The Sunday dessert can always be made on Saturday. But do not let the Saturday's work run into the evening.

SUNDAY.

Do no work at all on this day, except what is actually necessary for comfort—"thou, nor thy servant." If you see a dusty corner, or a dim window pane, let it alone until the next day. Some putting of things to rights there must be, some making of beds and cooking. But there is no need of getting up especially elaborate dinners on this day, and, if Saturday afternoon has been employed as it should have been, your cooking will not occupy very much time. But don't be pharisaical about the work, accounting some work desperately wicked, and others sinless. There are people who will stuff a turkey and roast it, and cook three or four vegetables, and stew cranberry sauce for dinner, and yet will not make up a pan of biscuit for supper, (an operation that requires but a few minutes,) because, forsooth, "it is wicked to work in flour on Sundays!" This is only one of a dozen senseless ideas of the same

kind. The idea is not that any particular kind of work is in itself sinful on this day, but that it is the day set apart for Christian worship, and you and your family desire to attend church ; and to have the servant attend also, and, if there were no higher principles involved, all creatures need a rest one day in seven.

This plan is intended for families where but one servant is kept, but if there are two, the same system will be found to work well, only in that case, the mistress need do but little of the work herself. The servants are her hands, but she must think for them, and this is no light task. And then, too, there is the constant oversight of everything. This is absolutely necessary with our present race of servants. You may teach Bridget how to wash dishes properly, (a thing, by-the-way, that almost all servants do very badly,) and having watched her a dozen times, and become convinced that she understands every detail, if you neglect her for a month, you will find that the plates begin to feel "sticky," and the glasses to look "cloudy," and if you then come upon her unawares, while at this task, you will find that she does scarcely a single thing as you directed her. It is not necessary to overlook every part of the work every day—one might almost as well do it one's self—but the servant must feel that she is not to be left to herself to do the work her way, but that you require it to be done your way, and that you intend to see that your wishes are attended to ; and then, too, you must cultivate your habit of observation, that you may take in things at a glance. There is an old, true proverb, "The eye of a master is worth both his hands." So

far from overlooking everything every day, it is best not to do it, for this necessitates being in the kitchen a great deal, and that is a bad thing both for your servant and yourself. Your time can be much more valuably employed elsewhere ; and such constant talking, directing, and helping lessens your servant's respect for you. There is always a point, beyond which it is best not to go.

Unnecessary helping of servants with their work is injurious to them in every way, besides tending to mako them dissatisfied, for they are much happier when fully employed. This is very different from being overworked. Where there is but one servant in a family of two or three persons, the mistress will have to help a little, and if the family consists of five or six, she will have to do the lighter work, for the heavy work will be as much as one girl can manage properly. But two girls can do the work of such a family with ease. Employing too many servants leads to idleness among them, and all its attendant evils.

The essential point in having the work of the house done without hurry and jar is that the servants should rise early. That they may do this, and get as much sleep as they need, encourage them to go to bed early. There is very little for them to do in the evenings, and no good reason for their sitting up late. But, unless the business of the master of the house requires an early breakfast, there is no need that the mistress should rise early. It is often considered a mark of a poor housekeeper to remain in bed until eight o'clock on a winter's morning, when, in fact, this has nothing whatever to do with the matter. Sometimes early rising is a duty, from the nature of the family occupations, and

in such cases every one should retire early, for want of sufficient sleep is a fruitful source of nervous diseases. But in many families there is no such reason for early rising, and to them the evening is the happiest time—father, mother, children, brothers, sisters, and friends are all united in a delightful home circle—and they naturally desire to prolong the evening as far as they reasonably can. And going to bed late necessitates a later rising. Some housekeepers who sit up late, and feel that it is an essential of good housekeeping to rise early, try to make up the deficiency by sleeping in the afternoon ; but this seems something like the famous expedient of the Irish woman, who, in order to make her dress longer, cut a piece off the top, and sewed it to the bottom.

The servants have not the same duties to keep them up late at night, and it *is* part of their duty to you to rise early, and do their allotted work. You can easily find out, when you do get up, whether they have done their work, and have done it well.

WASHING AND IRONING.

Every year, it would seem that the washing and ironing becomes more and more of a burden to housekeepers. Our grandmothers, apparently, did not think much of it, for they had no machines, patent wringers, or wonderful magic soaps, and they arose at day dawn, and set themselves or their maids at the wash-tubs, and did their work in the hardest possible way without complaint, so far as we know. But their rubbing, and slopping, and pounding,* made "wash-day" quite as great a bugbear to the male members of the family as it

* The clothes, after being taken from the boiler, were pounded in a barrel.

is at this time, and a house pervaded by hot, soapy steam was no more agreeable to our grandfathers than it is to our husbands and brothers, judging from the doleful plaints of this famous institution, they wrought into both prose and poetry. But we are not as strong as our grandmothers; our occupations are more varied, our style of living entirely different, and to us the washing and ironing is the *bête noire* of housekeeping. The ironing is especially tedious in these days of puffing, crimping, and fluting of bias tucks and interminable lengths of ruffling. Where there is but one servant, even with a hired washerwoman, the mistress has to do very nearly all the other work of the house for two, and perhaps three days of the week; and, with two servants, a good deal has to be done to help them out. Usually a woman is hired to come for a day to do all, or the heaviest part of the washing, and then, all day long, the kitchen and wash-room are in a mess and a clutter, (to use technical terms,) a perpetual chatting goes on between the hired woman and the servants; they all seem demoralized for that day, giving the mistress an impudent stare when she comes into the kitchen, as much as to say, "What business have you here?" The woman has her own way of washing, and very often it is not a good way, and she will not change it to please you. She will rub the clothes to pieces on a washboard; she will let the flannels lie in dirty suds; she will put a great piece of soda into the tub whenever your back is turned. And then she so often disappoints you—she has a job of house-cleaning, or somebody is sick, or she is detained in the country. And sometimes she comes to you half-tipsy. In short, the hired washerwoman may be voted a nuisance.

To escape these evils, there is the alternative of giving the clothes to the washerwoman that she may do the washing and ironing at her own house. This plan certainly adds very much to the comfort of the family. Everything smiles serene until the clothes come home torn, streaked, "rough dry," spots on shirt bosoms, and linen collars, smeared ruffles, and a general air of "mussiness" pervading the whole basket; for the woman who washed badly at your house will not do any better at her own. This description of the clothes-basket may seem an overdrawn picture to those who have never "put the washing out," but most housekeepers will recognize it as faithful. For there is no work that women undertake to do that is, as a general rule, done so badly as the washing and ironing. A washerwoman who perfectly understands her business is such a treasure in the city that she is out of the reach of people of moderate means, for she can command any price she pleases to ask. It might be supposed that the demand for good work would create the supply, but this rule does not seem to hold good in regard to any branch of housework. In country places it is difficult to get washerwomen of any kind, good or bad.

Putting the washing out has also another disadvantage, which is a very serious one—it is very costly. All the household linen added to the various articles of wearing apparel make a long list. Some lessen the expense by having the smaller articles, or the coarser clothing, done at home by the servant, but this takes nearly two days of her time, and gives us two *bêtes noires*, one outside of the house, and one in.

Clothes sent to a really good laundry to be done up will come back to you looking so dainty and attractive

that it is a pleasure to lift them out of the basket—until you come across the bill! Of all the present contrivances for doing the washing and ironing, there is none so comfortable, so satisfactory, and so costly as this.

A word or two in regard to washing-machines. Some of these are admirable, and a family without a servant should by all means have one, for it will prove to be a great saving of strength and time. But, somehow, servants and washing-machines do not seem to get along well together. A few of the more intelligent like them, and use them properly, but the majority, strange to say, do not like them at all, and generally contrive to get them out of order after using for a few weeks.

When we consider the great trouble that the washing and ironing is in a family, the difficulty of securing the services of hired women who are competent for this work, and the cost of the public laundries, is it not surprising that housekeepers do not club together, and establish laundries of their own? For several years now this plan has been advocated by writers on household matters, and housekeepers have recognized the plan as a desirable one; but, as yet, we have not heard that it has ever been put into practice. The trouble and expense of organizing such a laundry on a scale as large as is generally recommended probably deters ladies from undertaking it. The expense and trouble would, however, be found to be less after the first year. But it is not necessary to build up a coöperative system on any extensive scale. Let half a dozen families in a city rent a room in some locality where rents are moderate, and yet not too far to be conveniently visited. A rather large room, and one already supplied with hot

and cold water, should be selected. The additional cost of stationary wash-tubs, boilers, ironing-tables, etc., will not be great, or they might be furnished from the private kitchens and laundries of the club. Two good washers and ironers hired by the month, will, probably, be found sufficient for the work. If the ironing is very difficult, extra help might be hired on certain days of every week. In so many families are generally to be found some ladies with nothing particular to do, who will gladly undertake the superintendence of the laundry by turns, or each one can take charge of some particular thing. Each family to pay so much per week for number of pieces, the price, of course, to be fixed according to the expense of conducting the laundry. This will be found to cost each family about the same as it would to hire a woman to come to the house to do the work, but all the vexation and trouble will be saved. But a more economical plan, and one that will be found to work much better, would be for the half dozen families to organize themselves into a society, with president, treasurer, etc., and to deposit in the hands of the treasurer a certain sum monthly or quarterly in advance, (this tax, of course, to bear a proportion to the number of pieces sent by each family,) and let this common fund be used for all expenses of rent, fuel, servants' hire, etc., including the salary of a superintendent. It will be easy to find women willing to undertake this latter office, and to do it well, for a very reasonable salary—women who are now wearing their lives out in doing sewing very badly that pays them miserably. This plan may seem an extravagant one at the first glance, but, on trial, will be found cheap, especially to large families. Increase the number of

families to twenty, and the expenses will decrease in proportion.

In the country, where the washerwomen do not expect hot and cold water, and stationary tubs to their hand, this plan will be attended with very little expense. Rooms rent for a low price, and the ladies can furnish tubs, irons, tables, etc., from their own houses. Perhaps in both city and country the greatest difficulty will be in finding women competent to do the work well. There will be plenty willing to undertake it, who could not be induced to "hire out" to private families; but, as we have before stated, there are but few washerwomen who understand their business. But they will do their work much better in an establishment where they must conform to certain fixed rules, and where each has her allotted task, than when left to their own devices, and practice and constant supervision will soon make them comparatively skillful.

If washing is done in the house, it should be according to a system, and the work should be so regulated as to make as little trouble and annoyance as possible. The plan suggested in "Arranging the work of the House" will be found easy and practicable.

The washing-fluid there referred to is made in the following manner:

Put into a *brass* kettle (tin and iron are corroded by the action of the soda) sixteen quarts of soft water, four pounds of washing-soda, and a piece of lime the size of a hen's egg. Boil until reduced to fourteen quarts, when pour off, as clearly as possible, into bottles, cool, and cork tightly, and set away for future use.

This fluid does not injure clothes in the slightest degree, *if properly used;* and it cleans them without

wash-board scrubbing, which *does* injure them ; and it helps to whiten them. Half a teacup is sufficient for a medium-sized boiler. Let the housekeeper measure this out to the washerwoman, for if she is allowed access to it she will certainly use it too freely, under the impression that it will save her trouble.

It is a good plan, especially in winter, to wash the flannels first in the morning, as they will dry more quickly if hung out while the sun is hot. Quick washing, and rinsing in hot water, and quick drying are all necessary to keep flannels from shrinking. Shake them out, and do not wring them. Colored and white flannels should be washed separately. Colored lawns, calicoes, etc., if washed in the ordinary way are passed through two rinsing waters. It is best not to rub soap on them. A good way of doing up such dresses (and the only one where they show a tendency to fade) is to wash them in starch water, using no soap, except on those very much soiled. The starch cleanses them, and preserves the colors. A pound of flour starch will be sufficient to put in water enough to wash two or three dresses. This recipe, however, does not suit black calicoes very well. The color is preserved, but the starch gives them a dusty and smeared look. These calicoes are very difficult to wash in any way to make them look fresh and new. A good housekeeper recommends that a tea-cup of weak lye be put in the water in which they are washed, and that they be starched in the water in which pared potatoes have been boiled, which will stiffen them without making them look smeared.

Sugar is best for starching laces—a lump or two dropped into cold water. A teaspoonful of coffee added to it will give that yellow tinge which is desirable be-

cause it imparts to the lace an appearance of softness and richness.

After ironing, the clothes should be well dried before putting away.

THE MEALS.

It is not the purpose of this book to treat of cooking, or to give details of what is best for us to eat and drink. These things have already been treated of in two volumes of this Series.* But a few things will bear repetition, and some remarks under the above head come properly only within the scope of this work.

There has recently been much discussion about the proper hours for the three meals that we, in this country, take every day, but the fact is that the hours for meals cannot be fixed arbitrarily. They must vary with the occupations and habits of different families. The farmer, the mechanic, and the laboring man take their breakfasts very early; the merchant takes his a little later; and the student has his later still. All need some kind of a mid-day meal, and whether it shall be dinner or lunch must be decided by their own judgment and experience. It is now thought most healthful to take the heaviest meal after the day's work is done, and this is doubtless best where it does not conflict with other rules of health; but it will not do for a man who finishes his work at six in the evening, and goes to bed at eight, to eat his dinner after his day's work is done. There would be no time before sleep in which to digest a heavy meal. It will be best for him to have his dinner at twelve o'clock, take as long a rest

* "What Shall we Eat?" and "Eating and Drinking."

after it as he can, and to eat a comparatively light supper. But for persons whose business does not require them to rise early, who sit up late, and work hard during their working hours, a rather substantial lunch at mid-day, and dinner at five or six is the most healthful. But the meals should be partaken of regularly at the hours fixed upon.

The kind of food is of more importance than the hours at which it is to be taken. But this, too, must in some degree be adapted to the wants of different classes of people. A farmer thinks it best for him to have what he calls plain fare, but a merchant or professional man would consider this to be coarse, heavy, unpalatable food. And, considering the great proportion of dyspeptics among farmers, it is a question whether such a "plain fare" is best for them after all. Because it answered "in the good old times" it does not follow that it is suitable to the present. The progress of civilization has changed us physically, as well as mentally, and we need our food more daintly prepared, and more delicately served, than our ancestors liked it. The fried meats, fatty gravies, heavy boiled puddings, and tough pie crusts on which they throve would certainly give us the dyspepsia if our stomachs would allow us to eat them, but, fortunately, we turn from them all with disgust. Housekeepers only half recognize this great change, and it is to their ignorance of this fact, or their false reasoning upon it, that we owe that scourge —Dyspepsia—that is riding rampant all over the land. We are hungry when we seat ourselves at the family table where the material is abundant and good, but nothing is appetizing. Our hunger suddenly vanishes, but we eat something under a sort of inward protest,

and an hour after our hunger returns, and we eat irregularly, and take refuge in candies and sweet things, and highly-flavored sauces.

The materials that we have are the same that our ancestors used—beef, and mutton, and fish, and vegetables, etc.; we need the same variety of strengthening meat, vegetables, fruit, fatty matter, and saccharine matter, and the cereals; but they must be differently cooked, dressed, and served to be palatable and healthful for us.

Nor will it do for Americans to regulate their meals and diet by the French, Italian, or English customs. Climates that differ so essentially must necessarily produce very different physiques. The two meals and a half per day of the French will not agree with us any better than the four meals of the English. Experience has shown that the custom of having three meals a day, which prevails all over this country, is a wise one. The fault is not that we have not learned to regulate our meals as to time, quantity and quality, but that we have not learned to cook our food in the best way.

It has been the custom among us to eat substantial breakfasts, but, of late, it has become the fashion to say that we should breakfast on tea and toast, or have a cup of coffee, with bread and butter, and fruits. Some substitute wine for coffee. This has a delicate and attractive sound, but such breakfasts do not suit our climate at all, nor do they agree with our habits as a nation of workers. A diet like this may do during the hot season in the Gulf States, but, even there, the addition of one somewhat substantial dish will be found more healthful, if there is any work to be done during the day. Wines are not the proper drinks for our

breakfasts. Coffee and tea suit us much better. In most of these matters the prevailing custom points out the right way.

But Cooking is an art (or science) not sufficiently valued in America. Each young housekeeper cooks as she was taught by her mother, or some elder friend, or, perhaps, quite as often she picks up her information from the first cooks she employs after her marriage; and all her life long she runs in the same groove. She has a cook-book, perhaps, and consults it in the making of a few cakes and jellies, and having culled out some half dozen recipes, which she uses over and over again for a series of years, cook-books are of no further service to her. How common it is in a family of grown-up sons and daughters to hear the remark: "The things at home are all good, but I must take a meal somewhere else occasionally to get up an appetite. I seem to need a change." Of course. Nobody can go on for twenty years eating the same things on certain days of the week, at certain seasons, prepared always in the same way, without needing a change. Some favorite dish each one has, and in all the years to come memory will revert to "Mother's apple-dumplings," or, "Mother's plum-puddings," as the most delicious dish ever invented. But, on the whole, they are weary enough of the monotonous round. It is not good in any business to get into grooves and ruts, and glide along the same road forever, and this is certainly true of cooking. This progresses and changes with the times like any other art or science, and to succeed in it housekeepers must make it a study, and not a dull routine. Many regard it as a finished art, but there is always something new to be learned in it, and house-

keepers, like lawyers, physicians, authors, merchants, etc., must modify their practice, or change it altogether as civilization progresses.

In this pursuit, as in every other at the present day, books, magazines, and newspapers note the changes. The number of household books and journals now published in this country show plainly that our housekeepers do manifest a desire to make a study of their art, and to learn what others are doing in the same field. There is scarcely a weekly newspaper that has not a household department, and even the daily papers gladly make room among politics and news for a good household article. It will be well for every housekeeper to have some journal on which she can rely, or occasionally to buy a good book on the subject, even as the lawyer and physician consult the Law and Medical Journals, not to yield them a blind obedience, but to learn what is being done by others in their profession in other parts of the country and the world; to glean out a useful hint here and there, and to "keep up with the times." Of course they are not all good—there is a great deal of trash written on this subject as well as every other—but some are good—good enough at least to be very useful to you.

And do not be ashamed because you are laughed at for "keeping house by book." Housekeeping is not a thing that we do right by instinct, and, is it any more of a disgrace to be taught by a good book than by a good housekeeper? And the latter are so very rare. Experienced housekeepers there are in plenty, but experience does not always give wisdom. We know a woman who had kept house for thirty-five years, and had made bread twice a week during all that time, ex-

cept when prevented by an occasional illness, and at the end of the thirty-five years her bread was as heavy and "soggy" as in the first year she made it; and we know another whose husband had dealt in clams for seventeen years, having sometimes as many as twenty thousand on hand at once, and, in all that time, she had not learned to cook a clam so that it was even palatable; and anything more unwholesome than her "doughy" clam fritters, and tough, leathery fish cut up into chowder, or smothered under wet crackers, and called by courtesy a clam stew, it would be difficult to imagine. It is unnecessary to state that a cook-book had never made its way into either of these houses. They knew no better way than their own, and no doubt thought those who complained of their cooking very ill-natured, or ignorant. Experience is not to be contemned when added to knowledge, but singly it is of little value. It is not claimed that any household book or journal is infallible, and just here is where experience will help you. You will find that some things can be added or subtracted from the recipes with advantage, and that some of the rules for household management do not suit your family, and you will modify or change them accordingly. It may be that in ten years you will be able to write a much better household book yourself, but none the less are you indebted to your old friend for all foundation knowledge, and to periodical household matter for the hints that you have worked into such a goodly shape.

And, if you cannot keep the recipes "in your head," it is no matter for discouragement. Have them where you can easily refer to them. If you have ideas about other branches of housekeeping, ideas about training

your children, ideas for the home circle, and for society, your head is pretty full, without retaining the exact proportions of eggs, butter, sugar, cream, flour, and flavoring that enter into the composition of a particular pudding.

The present style of cooking with so many "made dishes," as housekeepers call them, is more troublesome than the perpetual "plain roast or boiled," but is not as expensive. And, to keep house well, one must expect to take trouble. And, if more troublesome, it is not such a weariness to prepare meals with a choice of the variety we have at present, as it was when there was little beside "plain roast or boiled." Those families who have what they call "plain, substantial dinners" of huge pieces of meat, (often swimming in grease,) plain boiled potatoes, and stewed tomatoes that have been stirred around a few times over the fire, instead of being cooked until they were thick, and then well seasoned, with dessert only once or twice a week, and soup as a rarity, are not by any means the most healthy, nor are these establishments conducted on the most economical principles, although it may seem so to those who have never tried any other way. The every-day dinners require care, taste, and skill—first to select dishes that are seasonable, and then to arrange them so as to have a variety during the week, and where this is impracticable, to prepare them in a variety of styles; and lastly, to arrange the table in an attractive manner. The three courses of, first, soup; then meat, or fish, and vegetables; and then dessert, will be found the most attractive and healthy for the family, and the most economical also. It is not necessary to have desserts that are troublesome to prepare, and it is certainly best

not to have rich ones often, but something in the way of fruits or "sweet things," is not only palatable but wholesome, after partaking of meat, if the dessert consist of nothing but baked apples and cream, and some very plain cake. During the fruit season there is no difficulty in finding materials for desserts, and in the winter we have the canned fruits to help us out. Soups are easily made, and of so great a variety as to material, that we need not hesitate what to select in any season.

A servant who can set a table properly is almost as rare as one who knows how to wash dishes, and it is not such a very common thing to find housekeepers who arrange their tables handsomely. Provided that the dishes are clean, they think it is not much matter how they are put on. But, let the things be as clean as they may, if they are set on askew, in a hap-hazard fashion, the table will present a slovenly appearance. And, as the manners of children are cultivated through the senses quite as much as by precept, this helter-skelter, disorderly setting of the table, leads those children seated around it to think that, provided they eat to satisfy their hunger, it is no matter how they do it, and careless and slovenly table manners are the result. Your handsome china, and cut glass will not show to any advantage on such a table.

But whether you have decorated china, or plain stone ware, if it is glossy with cleanliness, and the dishes placed symmetrically on the table with due regard to what should be appropriate neighbors; if you have a spotless table-cloth, and clean, whole napkins; pretty table mats; bright knives, and silver; shining glass, with, perhaps, a dish or two of a fancy pattern; and, if

practicable, a few fragrant flowers ; your table will certainly be attractive, and the charm will extend to the contents of the dishes, so that everything will seem to have a more delicate flavor.

All this requires more artistic management than can be reasonably expected from a servant. Instruct her in regard to the general arrangement, but, before each meal, go into the dining-room, and give the fancy touches yourself. It will not require more than five minutes. And see that everything is there, that there shall be no running to the closet for the salt-cellars, extra spoons, etc.

One other thing in relation to the meals is of such importance that it certainly must not be left out of these hints. There should be pleasant conversation—not a monologue from one of the two heads of the house, nor yet a dialogue between them, but lively talk that passes from lip to lip. Some families take their meals in almost total silence—not because they are morose, or that they have not enough to say at other times—but simply because such has become their habit. Fast eating and dyspepsia are very apt to be also habits of such a family. But even if these evils do not result, such meals are too business-like and unsocial. And here, as in all the social life of the family, the mistress must be the leader. She may think this is too much to lay upon her, as, of course, it is her place to see that no one is neglected in serving, and she has also to preside over the tea and coffee urns. But she need not bear the burden of the conversation, only be on the look-out to see that it is kept up. If it flags, a word or two from her will set it going again. Some ladies rather discourage conversation at their tables, because it prolongs

the meals, thus taking time away from the beloved housework. But the additional pleasantness and healthfulness should be held in greater importance than getting the work all done in a given time. For a family to dispatch a breakfast in ten minutes, and a dinner in twenty, would, no doubt, be a very fine thing if they are Bedouin Arabs, but we fail to see what advantage it can possibly be if they are living in a settled and enlightened community, while the disadvantages are many and obvious.

It used to be the fashion, and is still the custom in some places, for the lady of the house to remain in the dining-room for a while after the meals were concluded, to see that the table was properly cleared, and the dishes properly washed. It might be well to revive the old custom. Or, if this takes time that cannot well be spared from other duties, let the mistress, when her servant first comes to her, take it for granted that she knows nothing of this apparently simple service, and instruct her in every detail, and afterwards take time occasionally to see if her instructions are followed. This course will prevent much waste, dirt, and bad management. For the way for persons of moderate means to live generously and well, is not to waste anything. Collect butter and fat from the plates for making the future soap ; if nice pieces of meat are left upon the plates, put them aside for the beggars who come to your door ; and do not allow the bread left upon the bread plates to be thrown away, but reserve it for puddings, or to crumb up for various dishes where bread crumbs are used. We do not advise gathering up the pieces of bread by the sides of the plates of the guests, to be used for these purposes, although this is recom.

mended by a popular English cook-book. This might, we think, be called repulsive economy. If small salt-cellars are used for each person, see that the salt remaining in them is thrown out, for servants often neglect this to save themselves the trouble of washing them. The plates should be well scraped before putting into the dish-pan, and the dregs thrown out of the cups and glasses. China should be washed in hot soap-suds, and rinsed in clear, hot water. Glass may be washed and rinsed in either cold or hot water, but must be wiped immediately. Dry with one towel and polish with another. Have a little brush convenient in case it should be needed for the crevicies of the raised ornamentation on the china, and for jugs in which the hand cannot be inserted, when, of course, the dish-cloth is not available. The knives should be cleaned after every meal, and the silver once a week.

One thing more should be mentioned in regard to preparing the meals. You cannot make good things of bad ingredients. This is a royal rule that you will do well to bear in mind. Buy the best flour, butter, lard, bread, etc. It is the most economical plan, also, for not only do you use good things more carefully, but it often happens that the articles made of poor ingredients are so bad that they are not eaten, and you are compelled to throw them away.

GIVING ENTERTAINMENTS.

This phrase is generally supposed to mean giving dinners, supper parties, and the like, but we do not purpose placing upon it any limitation of this kind, but shall treat it in connection with the society which the

heads of our house shall gather around them for the pleasure and benefit of the home circle.

We wish that we could be sure that they would enter into society. For, leaving out the very fashionable classes among us, whose numbers are small, and who live in a round of gaiety, there is very little of what might be called society in most neighborhoods, either of city or country. Even wealthy families, with abundance of leisure, (and this is especially true of country places,) seem to think that nothing is required of them except to live for themselves and families, and, possibly, a few friends; and those families whose means are limited, find plenty of excuses for keeping aloof from society, in the claims that their daily duties make upon their time, and in the scantiness of their wardrobes. Among the young, unmarried people there is, perhaps, in the course of the year, a good deal of random, reckless visiting, party-going, and attending places of amusement. But that is not society, properly speaking, as may be known from the fact that the acquaintances of one year are often an entirely different set from the last; and, from the more telling fact that it is a very common thing in cities for a family of brothers and sisters each one to have a circle of his or her own friends with whom the others have only a casual acquaintance. Parents and sisters often know absolutely nothing about the friends of the son and brother. This cannot happen in the country where everybody knows everybody, but there also there is no society that unites parents, brothers and sisters in one common bond.

And, even this loose kind of society, Americans are apt to give up when they have passed their first youth —chiefly, no doubt, because it was so loosely put to-

gether, and formed of such incongruous elements that it had no hold upon their lives. How common it is in the country to hear such remarks as the following: "This a dull neighborhood!" "Nobody visits here." "We have no time for visiting—no way of getting about." And in cities we hear: "We are not a family who visit much." "You must not expect me to come and see you, for I have got into the habit of staying at home," etc.

When society comprises only young, unmarried people it cannot last, and, in fact, never becomes what it should be—the controlling social power of a neighborhood. To have stability and influence it must comprise all ages above childhood. Then, when the young folks marry, instead of leaving it and sinking into obscurity, and thus gradually dissolving the society, they still remain in it, playing a different role. It is only in America that society is so exclusively given up to the boys and girls.

In the cities, and in country towns, there is no excuse for this state of things. In the latter, friends live near each other, and in the former the facilities for cheap travel are so great that distance is a matter of minor importance. Some excuse there is for families who live in real country neighborhoods, where friends are separated by several miles of rough road, and whose only reliance in going about is placed on one or two overworked farm-horses. But, if these families were all moved by a strong desire for social intercourse, it is probable that the rough roads would be made smoother, and, in making provision for yearly expenses, money would be set aside for keeping an extra horse. Money can be had for other things that the family

greatly desire—an expensive piece of furniture perhaps—and why not for this purpose? And, besides, there must sometimes be a way contrived for the young folks to pay a visit. Why not extend the contrivance throughout the year, and give *all* opportunities for enjoying society? In this, as in very many other things, "where there's a will there's a way."

But, you say you cannot afford to waste time that way? Are you sure that it is a waste of time? You need not join a society of spies who pick out each other's faults and gossip about them, nor yet a society of frivolous people who strive to out-do each other in extravagant dressing and costly entertainments. This would be worse than a waste of time. Two or three intelligent young women of tact and address can, even in one of the "dull" neighborhoods, form a society out of the materials they find there, the young and the old, the witty and the stupid, the elegant and the plain, the gay and the grave, the industrious and the idle, even taking in the gossips that will in a few years be pronounced "delightful" by every visitor to the place. The "tone" that they give it will be its own as long as it exists.

Out of three hundred working days in the year can you not spare some time for recreation? And do you not need it? For your own sakes you should cultivate society, and have a moderate amount of pleasure-making throughout the year. It will keep you young, fresh, and bright to throw aside cares and work sometimes, and surely these are great gains. And good society is very improving—your mind will be more active than if you drew all its food from books. It is not necessary for this purpose that there should be

formal meetings and solemn discourse. The lively talk of a huckleberry party, bent upon nothing but pleasure, if composed of people of fair intelligence, and moderate culture, will brighten you up for a month, and give you new ideas to think over. And, moreover, you learn to extend your sympathies beyond your own fireside. With no less love for the home circle your heart expands, and you enter into the joys and sorrows of your friends, and become more generous, tender, and helpful.

When your own children, or those in whom you take an interest, grow up, and enter into this society, you will feel assured that you have not wasted your time, whatever doubts may, until then, have lingered in your minds. How much better will it be to introduce them into a society that you helped to form yourself, and which you know to be good, than to have them going about with associates of whom you know little or nothing, because you have chosen to lead a secluded life. And then, too, you will be with them, and you and the young people enjoy society together, with the same interests, the same friends, and, in some degree, the same amusements. Men and women of fifty do not generally care for dancing, skating, and a few of the very active amusements of the young ; but there are a great many in which they would take pleasure as long as they were able to go about at all, if public opinion would only sanction them. And can you not help to form public opinion?

The expense of dressing sufficiently well for society is another excuse given for the selfish seclusion in which so many families live. This excuse has been advanced by *every family* in particular neighborhoods.

Now, it would seem that where all are equally badly off, according to their own showing, they might visit each other freely without fear of "odious comparisons." Nobody need be ashamed of a calico dress in a party where all dress in calico. At such a gathering the wearer of a silk dress would feel abashed. A man can enjoy himself quite as much in a homespun suit as in broadcloth, provided all his companions wear homespun. And there are very few families in this land who have not better things in their wardrobes than calicoes and homespun. It is the fashion now everywhere to exaggerate the importance of dress. And yet we saw, not long ago, at a party, a bevy of girls dressed precisely alike in clear white Swiss muslin dresses, made tastefully and simply (costing, when finished, ten dollars apiece) with no ornament save a cluster of green leaves where the dress was fastened at the throat, and with their own hair arranged in graceful styles, with not even a flower to help dress it. How pretty they all looked, and how they did enjoy themselves! It is true that such a very simple toilette as this needs the beauty and freshness of youth to lend it grace, and older ladies must give a little more thought and labor to their adorning, but there is no need that it should be costly, nor must their dresses be loaded with a vast amount of trimming, nor need they be ashamed of wearing the same dress many times, if it is tasteful and becoming. Introduce into a pleasant circle of friends a spirit of display in dress, or style of entertaining, and it will dissolve like the dew.

[The conditions on which the small "Sociables" have, of late years, been formed in cities and towns—*i. e.* placing limitations on dress and entertainments—

might, we should think, be extended to include a large circle of acquaintances who wished to enjoy society on limited means.]

We will suppose that you, young housekeepers, have builded or rented your house, furnished it, and duly ordered all things in it to the best of your ability ; and now, fully impressed with the ideas just expressed, are looking about to see what materials you have to help you in forming a pleasant society. If you are living near your old home, even if your parents had no society, and you have picked up your associates in the haphazard way so common among our young people, there are probably among them some two or three congenial spirits that you will like to entertain as friends, and with these for a nucleus, your society will soon be formed, for other congenial spirits will naturally gravitate towards it. For, in all these things, it is only the beginning that is troublesome. In a neighborhood that is new to you, you will have a struggle, and it will take a much longer time ; for you not only have to find out what are your neighbors' capabilities and tastes, but to work your way into their favor. The best plan will be to try to impress with your views some lady who is a power in the little community, and if you succeed in setting her to work, you may consider your purpose accomplished.

The next thing will be for the leaders in the enterprise (there are sure to be a few who will be looked up to as leaders, without any desire on their part for the distinction) to devise amusements and occupations. For a round of visits to each other's houses, with nothing but desultory chat and needlework for the women, and talk of politics and crops for the men, will soon be-

come a weariness. The most delightful social meetings are those which have some object.

In other countries it seems easy to supply these objects, or rather, the people take naturally to certain amusements. In most of them dancing is a diversion that never palls, and old and young take part in it ; the men have games of strength and skill which everybody goes to see ; there are gardens in which they delight to assemble, and hold a sort of perpetual pic-nic ; there are musical gatherings at market places, village greens, and private houses ; there are flower shows, etc.

But Americans do not patronize public gardens, or public out-door gatherings of any kind ; dancing is certainly not a national pastime ; and, although nearly all American girls are taught the piano, we are not a musical people. Our amusements must be confined to private circles, and, in general, those are best liked that require some little intelligence and skill.

If you have a hobby on which you expect your society to ride, you will be defeated at once. You cannot expect to get together all the ladies and gentlemen of a neighborhood, old and young, wise and simple, and form them into a literary club, or an art circle, or a musical society, or a scientific association, or a merry-go-round of dancing and fun. Here and there, possibly, will be found an individual of high culture, or one who has a decided taste for something ; but respectability, ordinary education, and good manners are all that you can expect from the majority. If the society is properly organized, a higher grade of culture will follow in time. But you will find on further acquaintance that each one of these mediocre people has a gift for doing some one thing very well. These gifts society will utilize.

You have quite a variety of amusements and occupations from which to make a selection that will be best adapted to the tastes of your acquaintances. For country society in the summer there are lawn parties, croquet parties, berrying, botanizing, pic-nics, etc. In the cities the society will probably be broken up in the summer, on account of numerous absentees, but those who remain in town can organize private excursions that will be enjoyable and healthful. In the winter, for both city and country, there are tableaux, charades, ordinary parties, reading clubs, housekeepers' clubs; and many others will suggests themselves. If you live in the country, try, if possible, to have a library. A small yearly subscription from a number of persons will, in a few years, lay the foundation of a good library.

It may turn out at last that society will become too attractive to you, and instead of making an effort to go out you will have to make an effort to stay at home. This will be a most deplorable state of things, and, as soon as you detect the first symptoms indicating that society is laying too strong a hold on you, withdraw yourself from some of your diversions, and resolutely confine yourself to such only as will not encroach upon the time that should be given to your family. The home circle must be best and sweetest to you, and when we entreat you to cultivate society, we mean, of course, that it should be enjoyed in moderation.

It will be seen from the above remarks that there are many ways of entertaining your friends besides feasting them. It is troublesome and costly to give dinner parties, and balls, and they do not yield as much enjoyment as the more informal gatherings.

For lawn parties and summer evening entertainments, let the refreshments be simple. Sliced tongue, light biscuits or crackers, cakes, fruit, lemonade, or ice cream, jellies, custards, etc. Cooling drinks will be generally preferred, but you will find that rich, hot coffee, served some little time after the other refreshments, will meet with a cordial welcome. These light things will be all that your guests will expect if they are informally served—*i.e.*, "handed around" or placed where they can help themselves. But, if you wish to set a table you should add some dishes a little more substantial, such as pickled meats, potted game, cold chicken, chicken or lobster salad, etc. If you would like to have some hot dishes, and still avoid heavy meats, make fricandels, rissoles, or croquettes. These are dainty dishes, if well made, are inexpensive, and are always popular. After such an entertainment serve coffee, tea, and chocolate.

For an informal winter evening party there is a still greater variety to choose from—light biscuit, rolls, cold turkey, canned fruits, apples, oranges, grapes, nuts, creams, coffee, etc. And, if you set a table, you can add to these oysters, raw and cooked, in some one of the numerous styles, game, cold, or hot, etc., etc.

Even when you give an entertainment in which eating is supposed to play the most important part, it is not necessary to invite your friends to an elaborate dinner of a dozen courses.

Some families have a way of inviting a few friends at a time to what they call "little suppers." And these charming affairs are remembered long after the stately dinner is forgotten. On such occasions the selection of the company is of the first importance. It will not

do here to mix together the wise and the ignorant, the grave and the gay. The success of a "little supper" depends chiefly upon the guests being exactly suited to each other. But here, of course, where people are especially invited to supper, that supper assumes greater importance than when they are invited to a musical party, tableau, etc., and will require study on the part of the housekeeper, skill in cooking, and taste in arranging. And here, again, the dishes need not be costly. It is not rare dishes, or a great variety, that the "little supper" demands, but each one must be *absolutely perfect*, (what on ordinary occasions is a slight mistake here becomes a glaring fault;) the table must be handsomely set; the guests properly placed, and the conversation never be allowed to flag. Heavy meats are not in good taste for a "little supper," or a variety of cakes and sweetmeats. The tea and coffee should be strong, the chocolate rich, the meats daintily prepared, mostly of French dishes, or American "made dishes," the gems, muffins, etc., should be delicate and crisp, the French rolls light, the glass and china should be sparkling, the table linen of fine white damask, and some pretty designs in flowers and fruit should grace the table.

When you give a dinner party, it is best not to vary it much from your usual style of every-day serving. A greater quantity you must have, of course, and perhaps a greater variety, and you may desire to put on a few extra fancy touches, but do not attempt anything magnificent in the way of style unless you are accustomed to live in a stylish manner. If your usual dinner consists of but three courses, it will be well on this occasion to add a fourth, and follow the soup with

fish, and the dessert of pies, pudding, creams, etc., should be followed by fruits, nuts, and raisins. And, beyond this, it is not necessary to turn out of your usual course. Your own servants and the extra ones you hire, know what to do with such a dinner as this, you see that everything is going on properly, and your mind is at ease so that you can take the leading part in entertaining your guests. And if everything is prepared in the best way, and nicely served, your guests will be much better pleased than if you had attempted a grand entertainment. For knowing what your every-day style of living was, they would only laugh at this spasmodic attempt at grandeur. If you are ambitious to give a grand dinner, where the plates are to be changed for a dozen courses, (half of them senseless courses, where the dishes would be much more attractive if put on the table together,) and the table rearranged for each one dextrously and quietly, where there is a scanty supply of ignorant servants, and the stable boy or grocer's boy, as the case may be, plays the part of head-waiter, and where you have attempted to make the same beautiful designs as the confectioner furnishes for such dinners, without any of his tools, to say nothing of his long apprenticeship at the business, you may depend upon it that you are not playing so grand a part as you imagine.

There is a story told of a party of Indians, who were taken away from this country several years ago, and exhibited in various European cities. At last they arrived in Paris, and at their first exhibition they were surprised at the small degree of enthusiasm the audience showed, although very attentive to all that was done. Finally, near the close of the performance, a

boy, unable to restrain himself any longer, cried out—"Look here! Some of you fellows have sewed up your elbows with white thread! Better dye it next time!" The performers stood aghast, and looked at each other. Too true! The elbows of their false red skins having given way some time before, they had carelessly stitched them with white cotton, and their after exertions had stretched open the seams until there was a grinning row of ghastly white stitches. And it appeared that the audience had seen them from the first. This is a most astonishing instance of politeness in an audience, but then it was French! American boys would have proclaimed the white thread the moment that the pretended Indians appeared. But this only helps to point the moral of the story. The habits of good society make your guests apparently blind, but you may be sure that *they see the white stitches.*

Nothing on the table is exactly what it should be; even the dishes that your cook ordinarily prepares admirably are poor, because she has been made nervous by such extra demands upon her time and intelligence; the servants are awkward; your family ill at ease, which throws a restraint over the guests; and you are in a most lamentable state of mind, every moment on the look-out for some catastrophe.

If you are determined to give dinners so out of proportion to the ordinary style of your household, make up your mind to do it properly, and to *pay for it.* Hire a fashionable caterer and give him *carte blanche.* He will supply cooks, waiters, and the best of everything. You can preside at your table with a mind at ease, and a serene countenance, and your dinner will be a great success—if you think it worth the price.

PART VI.

HOUSEHOLD MISCELLANIES.

THE SEWING MACHINE.

This ought just as surely to have a place on your list of articles for housekeeping as the gridiron and wash-boiler. It should be ranked as one of the necessary expenses. The advertisements setting forth the various advantages of different manufactures are so widely scattered through the country that the opportunity is given to all to read, and judge for themselves of their comparative merits. We pronounce no opinion in the case except this, that, while some are excellent, they are all good, and that the very poorest, whichever that may be, is far better than none. They can be obtained now at almost any price, between ten dollars and a hundred. Whatever is beyond this is for costly wood, and fancy styles.

It is a sinful waste of time to spend three days in making a garment that can be made in one by the help of the machine ; and, now that machines are so cheap, there is no excuse for spending so many precious hours on groups of tucks, and yards of hemming, felling, stitching, cording, etc., etc. With a little care and

good management any family can save ten dollars for such a purpose. Those who have been accustomed to having all their time filled up with an everlasting stitch, stitch, will be very much surprised at first to find that they actually get through their work sometimes, and absolutely have no sewing to do! Perhaps they will not be altogether easy under this new state of things, and imagine that they are growing lazy, but they will soon find that this world contains work to be done that is at least as important as sewing, and some of it more improving, and very much of it more healthful.

A MEDICINE CHEST.

This is also necessary. As the warm weather approaches, you should see that it is provided with the proper medicines for summer complaints, and in winter with those best for colds, and their incidental ailments.

Precisely what these shall be it is not the province of this book to say. Each family has its own favorite school of medicine. But do not select the contents of your chest from advertisements of quack nostrums that have worked marvellous cures. Consult your physician as to the medicines that will be useful on emergencies, for, of course, it is only for these and for slight complaints, easily understood, that your chest is to provide. Many a life has been preserved by having at hand, and using promptly, the proper means and medicines for giving relief until the doctor comes, and many a limb has been saved by having lint, bandages, etc., just where one could at once lay hands upon them. A physician cannot always be procured at a few minutes' notice, and, in country places, it is sometimes hours be-

fore he arrives. Therefore have the medicine chest always well provided, and do not keep the contents of any vial after you have reason to think there is a possibility of its being stale or worthless. Throw it out at once, and replenish, and when you do this, instead of grumbling at the waste of the money you paid for it, be devoutly thankful that you have the opportunity of thus disposing of it. Besides the physic, every medicine chest should contain some of the mustard plasters that are now sold ready prepared; some good salve; syringes; soft flannels for rubbing; a roll of old linen for bandages, and lint.

A CEDAR BOX.

A desirable article to add to the regular furnishing is a cedar box, in which to lay all the woolen household goods and the woolen garments during the summer. You can then feel secure that your blankets, furs, etc., will not be visited by moths. Country housekeepers can have these made at quite a low cost. A wardrobe lined with cedar, and with a division containing deep drawers of that wood, is of equal efficacy and much greater convenience, but will be rather a costly affair.

STORE ROOM.

Every house should have a store room, built for that purpose, convenient to the kitchen and dining-room. It should be about nine feet square, with a high ceiling, and thick walls. A northern exposure is best when practicable. But, as half the houses are built without the least reference to the storing of provisions, a room must generally be improvised for the purpose. It

may be that you will find some closet or tiny room that answers all the requirements, but the probability is that there will be nothing of the kind ; and then you will very likely be obliged to have two—a cool and a dry one. Make a closet in one corner of the cellar, by having two sides of a partition built, and a door cut in one side, and the necessary number of shelves put up. Here you can keep those articles that require to be in a cool place, and that dampness will not injure ; and some up-stairs closet, that is not too close and hot, must be set apart for those articles that require a very dry place. It is a good plan to have a store-room book, containing a full list of all your possessions, that you may know what has been used, and what is still on hand, and on what particular shelf of what particular closet is the precise jug, jar, or box which you want at that precise moment. The inventory will have to be taken every year, in the early part of the fall, after the store of canned fruits, preserves, pickles, etc., is laid in.

A ROOM FOR THE SICK.

When treating of bedrooms, some suggestions were thrown out in regard to furnishing a room for a chronic invalid for whom, for a great part of the year, perhaps one apartment serves for parlor, dining-room, and bedroom. But a room for the sick is a different affair, although many rules that will apply to the one will also serve for the other. The room referred to under our heading, is for a temporary illness, which threatens to be somewhat violent in character. It is not meant that any one room of the house should be set apart and furnished with a special view to using it for a hospital.

But when a member of a family is taken ill, the question is often asked anxiously : " What is the best room for him ?" and also : " What can we do to make him most comfortable ?"

In providing for this exigency two things are to be considered—the comfort of the patient ; and the convenience of nursing him. A first floor room is the most desirable for convenience, and is generally cooler for summer use, but it is not as likely to be dry and airy as an upper apartment. [For a room may be cool and not airy.] And it has the great disadvantage that it is impossible to entirely shut out noises. It is usually best, then, to select a bedroom on the second floor, the lightest and airiest, either for winter or summer use. If there is one with an open fire-place, by all means give that the preference. If there is no fire-place have a small stove put up, for even in summer there are " wet spells " in which dampness will penetrate every nook and crevice, and the only way to counteract its bad effects is to make a wood fire for a little while. Half an hour a day is often sufficient. Wood is best to burn in winter also, as gases will sometimes arise from coal, notwithstanding all our care. A wood fire can also be attended to with less noise. We have lately seen an excellent suggestion in regard to replenishing a coal fire in a sick-room. It is to keep on hand a number of small paper bags filled with lumps of coal, and lay them on the fire as wanted. These bags can be filled down stairs, and a scuttleful of them brought up instead of the loose coal.

Gas is the most desirable light for a sick-room, and where there is no gas, use good, clear lard oil, or candles of paraffine, or sperm. It is best to have one of

these ready to be lighted even where gas or a lamp is used, as the former may suddenly fail, and the latter become clogged or smoky. Never use kerosene oil in a sick-room. Next to the gas a taper is best when a dim light is required. Get those made with a wax base about two inches in diameter, and an inch in height, from which rises a little pyramid of wax with a wick in the centre. One of these will burn ten hours. No improvised tapers can compare with these, and it would be a good idea to keep some of them in the medicine chest that they may be ready when wanted. But, if these are not at hand, cut a newspaper into small square pieces, and twist them around the finger into a sugar-loaf shape. Immerse the base in a saucer half filled with melted lard, leaving the apex about an inch above the surface. It is said that sycamore balls make very good tapers when saturated with melted lard.

It is best not to have a carpet on the floor of a sick-room, but this is a rule that admits of many exceptions.

Not so, however, in regard to woolen hangings, which are inadmissible in a sick-room ; and woolen upholstery of all kinds is to be avoided. If the curtains are of lace or thin muslin they may remain, but if of any heavy material they should be removed.

The shades at the windows will generally be found sufficient for excluding the light in connection with the shutters (either outside or inside.) But if it is desirable to have the room quite dark at times, make a plain curtain of some dark cotton stuff—one that will slip noiselessly on a string, or that can be taken down in a moment.

Feather beds are held by most persons at this present day to be very unhealthful contrivances, although they

still have some quite able champions who argue to the contrary. Whatever they may be to the healthy, there can scarcely be two opinions in regard to their being very bad for the sick. Even their advocates say that they should be well beaten and thoroughly aired every day, and this in a sick-room is clearly impossible. And it is almost impossible to nurse a sick person on a feather bed. A hair mattress is not as absorbent as feathers, has no odor of its own, and is manageable with little effort. It should be laid on springs, and will probably require another mattress under it. Hair is best for this, but wool or even cotton will do if new, or nearly so.

Have the bedstead out from the wall, and as near the centre of the room as convenient, and in placing the bedstead due attention must be given to the draughts in the room. The most desirable spot is where there is the most air with the least draught, and it should be so placed that the light will not shine in the patient's eyes. Let there be no furniture in the room that is not absolutely necessary.

Keep the medicines on a little table behind the bed head, where they will be convenient, and yet out of sight of the patient.

The nurse must have a time-piece, but a loud ticking clock is often a great annoyance to a sick person.

These directions apply to the room of a very sick person, where only his immediate comfort and the things that tend to his restoration are considered. As he convalesces the articles of furniture can gradually be restored to their places, the dingy window-hanging replaced by something lighter and brighter, and all sorts of pretty things may be gathered into the room.

SECOND-HAND FURNITURE.

Young housekeepers hold second-hand furniture in too great contempt, while older housekeepers, who have learned the value of money, are apt to hold it in too great respect. A great deal of money is spent in the aggregate by "managing" housekeepers who buy up unsightly, old-fashioned, rickety furniture "for a trifle" for each article. Half of it is good for nothing but firewood, and what remains is botched up by some cabinet-maker and placed about the house to disfigure it by inherent ugliness. Others who are on the lookout for something better than this spend hours at auction rooms for days and days until at last they secure one or two things and consider they have done well if they have saved a few dollars thereby. Clearly to them time is not money. And it very often happens that these things, that are such wonderful bargains, turn out to be dearer than the brand-new ones at the furniture-dealers, or "there is a screw loose somewhere." On the other hand, where second-hand furniture has been well kept and looks fresh, and where the proper reduction is made in the price, and where you are sure it is good, it is often of great advantage to buy it instead of the new, because for the same price you can not only get a handsome article, but a better made one.

If you are purchasing from a friend, you may buy without fear what you choose; but there are certain articles that should never be bought at second-hand at an auction, or from a regular dealer—bedding, bedsteads, carpets, oil-cloths, and upholstered furniture.

In connection with this subject it may be mentioned

that many writers lay down as an excellent rule that one must *never* buy what are called

BARGAINS.

But this is requiring too much of human nature; and besides it is a very good thing to get a good bargain provided you have come by it honestly, and in good faith, and not by overreaching, or fraud, or taking an unfair advantage of the unfortunate. A better rule would be never to buy any article *merely because it is a bargain.*

HOW TO MAKE CARPETS.

The fashion of binding carpets is obsolete. It has been found that they wear much better by being simply turned in and tacked down. Lay two breadths on the floor, and match the figures accurately; then with a carpet needle and thread tack the breadths together in several places, generally at points and intersections of figures, by taking a stitch or two, and then tying the ends of the thread into a knot. This must be done securely, so there is no danger that the figures will slip out of place when you turn the carpet over to sew it. If, in tacking this way, you find that one edge is fuller than the other, so that it will necessarily "pucker" when sewed, do not be alarmed, for it will all come right. Your first business is to match the figures at all hazards. Having done this you can cut the two breadths apart. Then lay down the third breadth, match the figures, and tack in the same manner; and so on, until all the breadths are tacked and cut. In laying down the breadths you must allow a little at each end for turning in. Now turn your carpet on the

wrong side, and sew the breadths together, with an over-seam, or by putting the needle through one edge and bringing it back through the other.

The stitches should not be taken through the whole thickness, unly the under half. In this way the stitches can lie closely, and the edges be securely fastened together, without danger of drawing open when laid down, and yet the seam will not be heavy, nor the thread show on the right side.

When a carpet is tacked down, it should be stretched rather tightly, or it will rub up in folds and wrinkles, after being walked over for a few days. The figures will be your best guide in this, for they must, of course, run in straight lines, and not be drawn out of shape.

After the carpet is tacked down, you will find, in most cases, that the puckers in the seams have disappeared, but if they have not, they generally will in a few days ; if, however, they are very obstinate, wet them with clean cold water, and, when the carpet dries, you will find it is smooth.

HOW TO DO UP LACE OR MUSLIN CURTAINS.

Before the curtains are put in the wash, tack all around them narrow strips of white cotton cloth, an inch or two wide. Dissolve a little soda in milk-warm water, and put in the curtains. Let them remain for half an hour, stirring and pressing them occasionally. Wring them very carefully—rather squeezing than wringing, whenever this process is to be performed. Place them in cold water for an hour. Then wash them with soap and warm water (but not *hot*). Wash again in clean water, rather hotter than the last. Rinse them

in bluing water (only slightly blue, unless the curtains are very yellow). Wring carefully in clean towels. They are now ready for starching. Make the starch according to the usual process, but be sure to have it clear, and good, and *thin*, for muslin, and *very thin* for lace. Thick starch is utterly destructive to the fine, soft appearance of the lace. Stir a few times round in the starch, while boiling, a wax or sperm candle, or put into it a small piece of white wax. If the latter is used, it should be melted and poured in. When the starch is ready, pour half of it into one pan, and half into another. Dip the curtains in one ; wring them out in towels ; then dip into the second, and wring again. On the floor of an unoccupied room spread a couple of sheets, one under the other, for each curtain, or rather, half of a curtain. A large sheet folded may be wide enough. Shake the curtain, with assistance from some one, and lay it down smoothly, the edges of the cotton cloth to the edges of the sheet. Pin down the top and back. The other sides will then come perfectly straight without pinning. Leave them to dry ; and then remove the strips of cloth, and hang the curtains to the windows at once. They should not be folded. If you should desire to put them away for a while, roll them lightly in a loose, soft roll, and wrap in *blue* paper, or cotton, the former preferable ; but, in both instances, assure yourself that the blue dye does not rub off ; and lay them where no weight will press against them.

MATTING.

Matting should never be washed with anything but salt and water—a pint of salt to half a pailful of soft

water, moderately warm. Dry quickly with a soft cloth. Twice during the season will probably be sufficient washing for a bedroom, but a room much used will require it somewhat oftener.

OIL-CLOTH

Is ruined by the application of lye soap, as the lye eats the cloth, and, after being washed, it should be wiped perfectly dry, or the dampness will soon rot it. If laid down where the sun will shine on it much, it will be apt to stick fast to the floor, unless paper is laid under it.

OILED FURNITURE.

When oiled walnut begins to grow dingy, it can be made to look as fresh as new by re-oiling. Linseed, or even olive oil can be used, but pure, good kerosene oil is much the best. Rub it well in with a soft woolen rag, and polish with clean, dry flannel.

SILVER.

Silver should never be allowed to grow dingy, and need not, if properly washed after every meal. Wash in very hot soft water, with hard soap. Wipe hard and quickly, on a clean towel, and polish with dry flannel. If discolored with egg, mustard, etc., rub out the stain with a small, stiff brush, and silver soap, or whatever you use for cleaning silver ; then wash off in hot water, wipe, and polish. Use soft towels. This is for the articles in common use. Once a week have all the silver cleaned. If you wish to place silver away for

any length of time, wrap each article in blue paper, and it will keep a good color.

GILT FRAMES.

Boil three or four onions in a pint of water, then with a clean paint brush wash over your frames, and the flies will not alight on them. No injury will result to the frames. This renders unnecessary the unsightly drapings of gauze.

BEDS

Should be carefully examined very frequently, especially during the summer months, by the housekeeper, as servants neglect this duty altogether, or perform it carelessly. It is difficult to get rid of bed-bugs when they have once fairly established themselves in a house. Even new houses are sometimes infested by them, as there are certain kinds of wood in which they make their home, and thus their nests are built into the house. But they can be driven entirely off the field, if the war is only carried on briskly enough, and persisted in for a long time. When you think the last foe has yielded, and you have rested for a while on your laurels, you will be surprised some day to find one skirmishing on the sheet, or perhaps on your best shawl, and on investigation you will discover that he is only the advanced guard of a whole regiment lying in ambush in some secure retreat. Even if you do not see one for the remainder of that summer, you have no security that they will not appear the next spring in apparently undiminished force. But do not give way to despair; keep fighting, and you will be victorious at last. When one fails to make its appearance in a house for the whole

of a summer, you may congratulate yourself that the foe is completely routed. Here, again, there is no absolute security. You have certainly destroyed all the native inhabitants, but you do not know what day there may come a foreign importation. So you must keep a good lookout. Eternal vigilance is certainly the price of freedom from bed-bugs.

Hot steam is the best thing for driving these creatures from the walls of houses. A small steaming apparatus can be bought for an inconsiderable sum, or with a little ingenuity one can be fitted up at the cost of a dollar or so. Use it freely, and scald out every corner and crevice, from garret to cellar, quite frequently, until you feel sure that they are entirely dislodged; and after that, once or twice a year will be sufficient.

The persistent use of scalding water on bedsteads, pouring it on the slats, and springs, and joinings, (the bedstead must be often taken apart for this purpose,) will prove effectual in time, if no other means are used. But there are various substances employed to hasten the desired result. Corrosive sublimate—an ounce of it to a half pint of alcohol—is an old remedy, and effectual. So is quicksilver, beaten up with the whites of eggs. But both of these are deadly poisons, and housekeepers are afraid to use them. Persons very sensitive to poisons have been made sick by sleeping on bedsteads where corrosive sublimate had been recently applied. Some use hartshorn, but this injures paint and varnish. Some use nothing but salt and water, and others assert that kerosene oil is a sovereign remedy.

There are various powders sold that are effectual as bug destroyers, but housekeepers usually find them

very unreliable ; one package will be all that it claims to be, and another of the same kind of powder, bought at the same place, will be good for nothing. Sometimes this is because the powder has been adulterated, but generally because it has become stale. And these are, also, often very poisonous. One of the most popular of these, however, the Persian Insect Powder, is perfectly harmless to human beings, and is a deadly poison to all insects that infest houses. It is imported into this country from the East, and is prepared from a flower of the same genus as our Feverfew. But a great deal of this that is sold is good for nothing, also. If you can buy it in the original packages in which it was imported, you may feel pretty sure that it is good.

Mattress covers should be washed every month or two, but so arrange it that all will not be in the wash at the same time.

Sheets must be thoroughly aired before putting away, must be kept in a perfectly dry place, and should not be put upon the bed any length of time before they are to be used.

When a guest has left, and a bedroom is to be unoccupied for a time, fold up the bed-spread and blankets, and lay them carefully away ; and, having sent the sheets, bolster, and pillow cases to the wash, put on the pillows slips made of calico, and spread over mattress and bolster a covering made of the same. Thus everything will be kept clean until wanted again.

Mattresses should be exposed to the air every day, and have a good airing once a week ; and sometimes should be put out for a whole day in the sun and wind. In the case of invalids, where this cannot well be done, hair mattresses can be used without it longer than any

other. But here, if there are two beds, one can be spared sometimes for a good airing.

FEATHER BEDS.

These ought to be cleaned every spring. There are several ways of doing this, but the following is recommended, as it cleans both tick and feathers: Contrive, if possible, some sort of a platform, that you can set up in the yard, on which to lay your beds for cleaning or airing. Failing this, use a back porch. Wash the platform clean, and lay on it the feather bed, and let it remain there during the night in the dew. In the morning, before the dew is off, take a pail of clean, cold, soft water, and, with a new whisk broom, wet and rub the upper side of the bed for some time. Let it lie in the sun until it is dry, which will not be for several hours. Turn it over and treat the other side in the same way, and continue the process until the white stripes in the ticking look as clean as new. This treatment of the feathers makes them "lively."

If there is any indication of rain, the bed must be taken into the house. And, if you are afraid to leave the bed out at night, because of thieves, the dew must be dispensed with in the treatment.

FEATHER PILLOWS.

The best way to wash these is to put them out in a good hard rain for several hours; and then wring them out, and dry quickly, that they may not get musty.

VASES.

It may not be generally known that bright-colored

vases, and those ornamented with flowers, do not show off real flowers to the best advantage. White or brown are best for this purpose.

FIRES.

Fires should be kindled at least once a week in every room through fall and winter, to prevent dampness.

DISINFECTANTS.

These should never be left more than a week unchanged, as they throw out the poisons they gather.

THE STOVE URN.

Keep the stove urn nearly filled with water, as long as the fire is kept up in the stove. Put a little charcoal also in the urn, and this ought to be changed every week.

WALL PAPERS.

Old paper should be removed from the walls before the new is put on. It can easily be done by wetting it with warm water. After it is all off, have the plaster wiped over with carbolic acid, to purify it. The disagreeable odor of the acid will disappear almost immediately, and you can then feel sure there is nothing infectious lurking in your walls. Use corn-starch paste for putting on the new paper, as it does not turn sour, or stain the paper.

COVERING FOR A STOVE.

Even the prettiest stove is not in itself a very beautiful object. In the cold weather when there is a fire

burning in it all the time and it gives a pleasant sensation of warmth to the occupants of the room, they forgive its ugliness, and regard it with very friendly feelings; but in summer it stands out in cold, cheerless deformity. And yet if there are no open fire-places, the stove should be left standing in, at least, one room all summer to be in readiness for the cold "north-easters" when the whole house seems pervaded with dampness, which a little fire will soon dissipate. In the fall, too, the stove ought to be put up in the sitting-room very early, and the fuel laid in it all ready for lighting whenever there is a chilly evening. To conceal the stove, when not in use, you can make a covering for it somewhat in the following style:

Have a light pine frame made, consisting of a square or oval top, on which are fitted three or four legs a little higher than the stove. Drape this frame with any pretty material that is sufficiently thick to conceal the stove. The under drapery must be tacked on quite full, and should fall to the floor; the upper must be still fuller to drape gracefully. Arrange the festoons in any style you fancy, only take care that some of them shall fall nearly to the bottom of the under drapery, or else your stand will look "lanky." Trim with woolen or cotton cord, according to material used, and hang tassels wherever they will be effective.

Before the drapery is put on, the top of the stand should be rubbed perfectly smooth, and then stained with black walnut stain.

This frame can be removed easily whenever a fire is needed. A vase of flowers or grasses can stand on the top.

A GRATE FOR WOOD FIRES.

Any country blacksmith can make a grate as described below, and it will be found of the greatest advantage where wood fires are used.

A broad strong iron bar is secured from side to side of the fire-place, and directly in front, about six inches above the hearth. From this bar others of less diameter, and about four or five inches apart, extend at right angles to the back of the fire-place, where they are fastened in the wall, or to a transverse bar, or secured properly upon bricks. No andirons are needed with a grate of this kind; the wood burns well; and the ashes fall down, and are easily removed.

If a second bar is fixed a few inches above the large front bar, the danger of the wood rolling forward, and out of the fire-place will be averted.

PART VII.

ORNAMENTAL WORK.

USEFUL articles of furniture can sometimes be made of apparently unpromising materials—sofas out of old chairs, arm-chairs out of barrels, lounges of packing-boxes, by those who have some mechanical ingenuity. But these things have not only been so often described that it is not now necessary to treat of them, but we do not consider that they enter into the plan of a well-furnished house. As a rule they are make-shifts, and nothing more, and though they will do very well in certain cases to fill up a vacancy in the house-furnishing, they are not to be relied upon as real, satisfactory furniture, such as we advise for a home.

But with ornamental work the case is very different. With natural good taste and some practice, very beautiful things can be made that will compare favorably with costly articles from the shops. And the work is in itself fascinating. Nearly every woman, young and old, has some particular hobby in the way of ornamental work from making patchwork quilts to embroidering altar cloths. Very many men, too, have a passion this way, but while the ladies instinctively take

to needle and thread, the gentlemen turn to knives and saws; and while the former are moulding wax, and pressing flowers, the latter apply themselves to planes and turning-lathes, and to the moulding of wood.

Where both male and female members of a family have these tastes a house is likely to be well filled with ornaments, and, if these are tastefully and artistically made, and put into their proper places, (a very important part of the process,) this is one of the surest means of converting a mere dwelling into a pleasant-looking home.

It would be impossible, except in a work especially for this purpose, to give directions for making the numerous articles of household adornment; and, where there is so much that is attractive, it is difficult to select those that are most desirable, for what one might fancy, another might not.

In these directions, therefore, we shall only give some general ideas, and a few samples, and these not with a view that they shall be exactly copied, but taken as they are meant—as suggestions—materials with which to work out far more beautiful results.

These simple hints, your own good taste, and the numerous patterns and designs that you see in your friends' houses, or find floating about in magazines and papers, will be sufficient to furnish you employment for many a leisure hour, and will help you to ornament your home at a small expense.

WOOD CARVING.

We begin with this, because it is the most beautiful of fancy household work, and because the most useful

ornamental articles are made of wood. For, because a thing is ornamental, it does not follow that it is not also useful ; and *vice versa.*

All boys (American boys, at least) manifest a decided taste for whittling, often greatly to the annoyance of their elders. As they grow into manhood they generally leave off whittling, with other childish things, (foreign writers to the contrary, notwithstanding.) The trait is only mentioned here to show that it is born in them as much as nursing dolls is in girls ; and to account for the fact that so many men have a natural gift for cutting and carving wood. It is the whittling grown into an art with the natural growth of the mind. Furnish such men with a pen-knife, and a few old cigar-boxes, and they will return you prettily carved brackets, picture-frames, etc. Very few women turn thus instinctively to such work, but if their attention is directed into this channel after some practice and with proper tools, (for with a pen-knife they would be powerless) the majority make very respectable wood carvers, and some become quite accomplished and skillful artists. And as women, as a rule, have more leisure than men, or perhaps we should say that the most of their leisure is passed within the home, it usually happens that the ornamental work falls largely into their hands.

The actual work of wood-carving is purely mechanical, and only requires care and nicety in cutting, and a very moderate supply of patience. It is in designing the patterns and in putting the pieces of carved wood together that your genius and taste are called into use. If you do not possess the former—for this particular thing—perhaps you have some friend who can draw designs for you ; and, if not, you can

buy them in infinite variety. Even in the matter of putting together you can obtain directions so explicit that you will have to take great pains to go wrong; but it is best to trust to your taste, and cultivate it by using it. For this is one useful purpose of all work that is known as "fancy."

First, in regard to the wood. This can be generally obtained from any cabinet-maker or carpenter. The former will probably have the greatest variety and the finest qualities. In country places you may not be able to obtain the foreign woods, but you can get Walnut, Oak, Chestnut, Butternut, Appletree, Cedar, Holly, and others. It will be well at first for you to consult with the man from whom you purchase in regard to the properties of the different woods, some being hard, and others soft, some soiling very easily with use, and others being difficult to polish, or varnish; but you will soon learn these things yourself. Wood varies in price, but none of the American woods are expensive. The most beautiful—and most costly—of the foreign woods are satinwood, rosewood, and ebony. But the latter being very effective, a little of it may be made to go a great way by using it for tiny centre-pieces, narrow mouldings, etc. Satinwood is also effective, but easily soiled, and is employed for dainty finishings of articles that are to be little used.

With some pieces of wood, pretty patterns, and inexpensive tools you can cut very respectable Easels, Brackets, Picture-Frames, Letter-Holders, Book-Racks, and numerous other small articles, and also ornaments for larger pieces of furniture.

Sand-paper for rubbing the wood smooth, and cement for mending breakages, will also be necessary.

The small saws are about twenty cents a dozen. They cannot be used without a frame in which to place them to steady them; and you will have to practice some time before you will be satisfied with your work. But it can be done well with a little patience. Those who wish to go extensively into this business, or a club of persons who desire to work together would do well to purchase a jig-saw at twenty-five dollars. This not only saws wood but soft metals; is mounted on a table like a sewing machine; and is worked somewhat in the same way. With this, wood-carving is very easy and fascinating work; and you may aspire to making really beautiful things.

But as this work will probably be found of too elaborate a nature, except for those who have a great deal of leisure, we will presently suggest some simpler ornamental work.

But, first we will give a few directions that will help in making a variety of things, both useful and ornamental.

BLACK WALNUT STAIN.

We give this first because it is useful for staining almost any article of furniture, and many ornaments; besides floors, woodwork, etc. It will impart to common wood, such as pine, the color and appearance of black walnut.

One quarter of a pound of asphaltum, one half pound of common beeswax to one gallon of turpentine. If found too thin add beeswax; if too light in color add asphaltum, though that must be done with caution, as a very little will make a great difference in the shade, as the wood should not be black, but a rich dark brown. Black is the color of the nut, and not the wood.

Varnishing is not essential, as the wax gives a good gloss.

TO POLISH WOOD.

This is rather a tedious process, and the best plan is to give it to a regular polisher. But if you wish to undertake it yourself, you will need some shellac (dark or light, according to your wood) dissolved in alcohol; some sweet oil, old linen, a little cotton wool, alcohol, and sand-paper.

First rub with sand-paper until the wood is perfectly smooth and soft.

Make a dabber of the cotton wool, cover it with the linen, and tie it firmly; wet it with the shellac and one drop of sweet oil, and rub the wood with a quick, even pressure, in circles, all over the surface. The only point is that the polish must be distributed evenly and quickly, and the same amount of rubbing given to every part. Continue the wetting and rubbing until the wood begins to reflect. The next day repeat the process, leaving intervals for absorption, till the reflection is as perfect as glass. When you are satisfied, take a fresh dabber, dampen it slightly with alcohol, and rub it softly and evenly over the wood; it will bring out the polish, and fix it. You must put on polish enough before using the alcohol, as you cannot put on any afterwards.

ASPHALTUM VARNISH.

One half a pound of asphaltum and one pint of turpentine are used for making this varnish. They can be obtained at a paint-shop or carriage maker's. Put the asphaltum into a tin basin, and pour on some of

the turpentine ; let it remain over night, and if well dissolved, try it with a brush on a piece of the same kind of wood or leather for which you are preparing it. When put on, it should be the color of black walnut. If it is too dark, add turpentine ; if too light, asphaltum. The proper proportions can only be known by thus experimenting. Apply one or two coats, as may be necessary.

TO MAKE LEATHER LEAVES.

Soak a piece of sheepskin in water until it is pliable. Cut a paper pattern of a leaf ; lay it on the leather, and cut. A carpenter's gouge is a good thing for the purpose.

When dry and stiff, varnish with asphaltum. These are used for picture frames, and for ornamenting the edges of book shelves, the tops of book cases, brackets, and a variety of things.

PLAIN LEATHER ORNAMENTS.

Get a piece of calfskin, and moisten it in warm water until soft and pliable. You can then cut it into scallops, diamonds, or any fashion you may admire. You can varnish with asphaltum, or leave it the natural color, which will deepen with age.

ACORNS.

These are often used for picture frames, baskets, etc., and also for mixing with leather leaves. The nuts and cups are glued together, and then glued to the wood. They are very pretty, but do not pay for the trouble of making, as they soon fall apart.

PINE CONES.

These are also much used for decorating, and are very handsome when varnished, but if glued on, are liable to fall off after some time. They can sometimes be tacked on. They should be mixed with other things, and, for most purposes, the small ones are the prettiest. The scales of the large cones are very pretty, each scale nailed on with small upholsterer's tacks, first boring the holes, so as not to split the scales.

FOR ORNAMENTATION.

Besides the above, there are many small things used for decorating, such as unroasted coffee beans, small black beans, kernels of rice ; and these, if well glued on, are not as apt to fall off as the heavier cones and acorns. These can be arranged in geometrical figures, rosettes, balls, and almost any way that fancy may suggest. Varnish with asphaltum, or black varnish, if you prefer it, which can be procured at any paint-shop. Cloves, allspice, and berries are strung on wires and twisted into scallops, double scallops, diamonds, etc., for edging and borderings.

RUSTIC WORK.

This is chiefly used for ornamenting large hanging baskets, aquariums, flower stands, and lawn tables, settees, and chairs ; and sometimes for smaller articles, such as boxes and picture frames. The materials are sticks of various woods, either flat or round, generally oiled and varnished, but sometimes with the bark left on. Twigs of various woods are freely employed ; these

have the bark on, and may be straight or bent, according to effect desired ; birch, hazel, and silver poplar are among the prettiest. Willow wands are easy to work with, and grape vines are not difficult to manage. These can be used with or without the bark. It is better to oil all wood from which the bark is stripped, but this is not absolutely necessary. Bits of rattan, strips of lath, pine cones, acorns, walnut shells sawed in pieces, walnut hulls, (split in two,) are all employed in rustic work ; and other materials will doubtless suggest themselves to those who have any knowledge of wood-craft. Asphaltum varnish will be found best on most rustic work, but for variety, black varnish, or even paint may be used when it is in wood colors, and not applied too thickly.

BRACKETS.

These may be constructed in simple forms of the plain wood, without any of the elaborate carving mentioned on a former page. They will not, of course, be as handsome, but are quite as useful. A little shelf, with semi-circular front, and sides cut to fit into a corner, may simply be fastened on the chair-rail. This is a corner shelf rather than a bracket, but is a convenient place for a vase of flowers or little bust. A small shelf, with straight back, and semi-circular front fitted to a standard, is the plainest style of the bracket proper. You will have to get a carpenter to cut the shelves and standards. You can then convert the plain affair into something fanciful by decorating shelf and standard with any of the leather or wood ornaments previously described.

LETTER RACKS.

These and letter pockets may be cut out of leather, or wood. If of the former, you can do it yourself, having first cut a paper pattern. Ornament the leather with small leaves, arranged in various forms, and the wood with rosettes of small articles, and pine cone scales, etc. They are sometimes made of embroidered cloth or satin, but these only suit bedrooms and libraries.

PICTURE FRAMES.

The prettiest home-made frames, after those made from the carved wood, are of leather leaves. Rustic work, if simple in construction, also looks well. Quite a graceful looking oval frame may be formed by twisting grape vines fantastically together, allowing the ends to project at the top and bottom.

A WARDIAN CASE.

This is a small glass closet over a well-drained box of soil. It can be constructed in various ways. The following is one of the simplest forms. Take a common, cheap table, about four feet long, and two wide. Remove the top boards, and board the bottom with them tightly. Line the box thus formed with zinc. Make the top of window glass. It should be about two and a half feet high, with a ridge-pole, on which rests the slanting roof of glass. In one end of this there must be a door of good size. The box must have a hole for drainage.

This is the case, which must now be filled with soil.

First turn a flower-pot saucer over the hole, which would otherwise be stopped up. Then spread over the bottom a layer of charcoal and broken pot-sherds an inch in depth. On this put the soil, which must be mixed in the following proportions : two fourths wood soil, one fourth clean sand, one fourth meadow soil taken from under fresh turf, and a small proportion of charcoal dust. This is large enough to give you a succession of flowers the whole winter, if you know what to put in it. If you do not, and have no one at hand to advise you, florists' catalogues will furnish the desired information. But the surest way to success is to write to some well-known florist, telling him what fuel you use, the temperature of the room, and the exposure of the window, and for a small sum of money he will send you the proper plants for this case, or for hanging baskets and flower-stands. It is absolutely necessary that the room in which are growing plants should be kept at an even temperature.

FLOWER STANDS.

Plain ones may be made with tables in the same way as described for the Wardian case, but without the glass cover. Fill the box about one third full of sand, and in this imbed the flower pots containing your plants, arranging them with reference to size, and also to color, if in blossom. Spread moss over the top of the stand in such a way as to conceal the pots. This will have to be renewed a few times during the winter. The sand should be kept damp, but not wet, and the moss also a little damp ; and the plants should be watered very little except in the case of those that require an

unusual supply of moisture, and these had better not be kept in the same stand with those that require only the ordinary supply.

The shelves, rising one above another, that have long been used for flower-stands, have been found objectionable, because the flower-pots are obtrusively ugly, but the flower-pot covers that are now sold remove this objection. These can be made of card-board, or thin pieces of wood. Still this is not a very desirable form of flower-stand, being cumbrous and possessing little beauty. The flower-pot covers will be found very nice when you wish to set a single plant on the window-sill or table.

For more fanciful forms of flower-stands, you should have the standards made by a neighboring cabinet-maker in plain wood and of any device. You can then ornament them with rustic work at your leisure. For the top you can have a round, square, or octagon box, also embellished with rustic work. Fill with soil, as in the Wardian case. Or you can have a flat circular piece of wood nailed to the standard, forming a round table. Make rustic work around the edge so that it shall be several inches high, and set on the table a basket made like a hanging basket, only larger, or some fancifully-made box, filled with soil for the reception of plants. All stands should be mounted on casters for convenience of moving.

Your own taste will suggest a variety of elegant devices for flower-stands, either for plants or cut flowers. If you can have the frames properly made according to your design, you can yourself ornament them in many beautiful styles. And there is nothing that so adorns a

room as a flower stand with its variety of greens and brilliant colors.

HANGING BASKETS.

If you take a cocoanut shell, and saw off a small section from the upper part, put in it a little piece of sponge, fill the shell with nothing but scouring sand, and a little charcoal, put in it the common plant, known generally as moneywort, and hang it where it can get the light and a little sunshine, you will soon have long swaying festoons and pendants of soft green, entwined with golden blossoms, through which will gleam the dark rich brown of your cocoanut shell, thus easily transformed into "a thing of beauty."

This is the simplest form of the hanging basket. For larger ones you can use wooden bowls, ornamented with rosettes and figures made of coffee, rice, and berries, as mentioned previously. With these can be mingled scales of pine cones, leather, leaves, etc. Or they can have edgings of rustic work, the rest of the bowl being ornamented with rosettes and balls made of the small materials. Three holes must be bored at regular distances near the edge for the cords that are to support the basket.

Very pretty baskets are made of sticks of oak, maple, or any of the handsomely-colored woods; they should be of equal lengths, eight or twelve inches long. Build up like a log house. At each corner a heated wire is thrust through the ends of the sticks to hold them together, and is bent into a loop at the top which supports the cord. A wooden bottom must be nailed on. Fill the interstices with moss.

And so we might go on through all the gradations, which are almost infinite up to the elaborate and in-

tricate designs in carved wood, shell-work, cork, etc. There is nothing easier to make than a hanging basket, or more difficult if you choose to take trouble. But the idea that many persons have that they must be bought is erroneous, for all the plainer styles that are sold by florists can be imitated with perfect success without very much trouble. A basket covered with rustic work carefully made, and pretty in design, with a handle of twisted grape vines, at an expenditure of fifty cents for materials, and a dollar for plants and vines, will be quite as handsome as one the florist would sell you for five dollars, and will have the advantage that the plants are much more likely to blossom. For it is a common complaint that when the baskets lose the flowers that are on them when bought they bloom no more—not that season, at least. The reason is that the dry air of the room in which they are hung is too great a change from the moist air of their native home, the greenhouse.

Very few things will grow like moneywort in common sand, but the soil in a hanging basket should not be very rich, or you will have a profusion of leaves, and but few blossoms. A light sandy loam is best. In the bottom place a piece of coarse sponge. This will hold the moisture, and the roots will absorb it as they require it. Also put bits of charcoal in the bottom, as this acts as a purifier to keep the earth sweet. Then fill with soil, one part rich earth, and two parts sand.

WAX WORK.

Wax flowers are the best imitations of the real ones, but where the latter can be obtained the former should

be dispensed with. With the introduction of hanging baskets and flower-stands, we have natural flowers in profusion in winter, when it is not always easy to obtain the cut flowers. So there would seem to be no necessity for the wax imitations. If you make these, use them sparingly, a spray of white lilies perhaps in one room, and a tea rose in another. Do not mass them together in great bunches.

Wax fruits, heaped up under glass covers, are not desirable ornaments. We marvel for a few moments at their wonderful resemblance to the original, but we soon tire of them. In a large room, however, they or the flowers massed together, do sometimes produce a fine effect from a distance, as a focus of brilliant colors.

A wax cross, with a trailing vine of passion flowers and green leaves, or rising in naked simplicity from a bed of violets or pansies, is a beautiful ornament for a mantel-piece or bracket.

LAMP SCREENS AND WINDOW PICTURES.

We mention these together because what is made for a window picture will do for a lamp screen. There are many kinds of lamp screens made, however, that cannot be used for window pictures, but into the merits of these we have not space to enter. The two styles we select are the prettiest.

Upon a square of white, or delicately tinted Bristol-board, trace lightly some pretty design, such as a bouquet, a cluster of leaves and fruit, or a cross, or an anchor, wreathed with leaves and flowers. The latter should be simple in form ; passion-flowers, lilies of the valley, apple blossoms, and sweet peas are the most ef-

fective. Fern leaves and fruit are also among the simpler designs.

For more effective pictures, select parts of a landscape, or figure pictures that are not too elaborate.

Having traced the design, lay the Bristol-board flat on a block of hard wood, and with a thin-bladed and very sharp knife proceed to cut smoothly through as much of each outline as possible, without entirely detaching any leaf or other distinct portion from the whole. One fifth of a leaf left without cutting through will be sufficient. Sometimes judicious prickings with a coarse needle add to the good effect. The points of the leaves and the petals of the flowers should next be pressed through toward the window to admit the light, and give the softly shaded effect we desire. The transparency can then be hung close to a window pane by means of narrow white ribbon loops at the corners, secured to the wood-work.

For lamp screens, several of these pieces of Bristol-board, each with a separate picture, can be put together.

The glass transparencies are more easily made, and require no skill in drawing.

Arrange pressed ferns, grasses, or autumn leaves, according to some pretty design, on a pane of window glass. Lay a pane of the same size over it, and bind the edges together with ribbon.

The best way to put on the binding, is to gum it all around the edge of the first pane you use, and let it dry before you arrange your design on it. Then you can fold it neatly over the second pane, and gum it on that. Use gum-tragacanth. It is well to put a narrow piece of paper under the ribbon.

To form the loop for hanging, paste a binding of galloon along the upper edge before the ribbon binding is put on, leaving a two-inch loop in the centre, to be pulled through a little slit in the final binding.

For a lamp screen, take four, six, or eight of these transparencies, and tack them together with strong sewing silk. To soften the light, the screen should be lined with oiled tissue paper, white or rose-color. Or you can give the glass the effect known as "ground glass," by rubbing the inner surface of each pane on a flat smooth stone, plentifully covered with white sand, before you insert the leaves.

PART VIII.

HOW TO FURNISH A HOUSE FOR A THOUSAND DOLLARS.

[The following Price Lists are carefully prepared, but it must be remembered that prices vary somewhat in different localities, and even in different stores in the same city, and that they also change from year to year. The latter is especially true of woven fabrics. But these changes are not radical enough to interfere with the list as a guide.

A house may be furnished for a less sum than that here given, from directions to be found in Part III.

Goods of inferior quality may sometimes be bought at lower prices than the same article is quoted in our Price List. Cornices, for instance, which we quote at three dollars and upward, are sold as low as a dollar and a half, but they are poorly made, and not such as we would recommend.

Our object has been to give the prices of *standard goods* that we know to be worth the money paid for them.]

PRICE LIST.

Kitchen, 15 × 15.

1 Table (5 feet long)	$5.00
" " (3 " ")	3.00
4 Chairs	3.00
Clock	3.00
Small Lantern	1.00
Step Ladder	2.50
Scales	1.50
Nail Hammer	0.50
Tack "	0.25
Market Basket	0.88
Clothes "	1.50
Tin Slop-pail, with cover	1.50
Coal Scuttle (galvanized)	1.38
Screw Driver	0.25
Tack Claw	0.25
Hatchet	0.88
Can Opener	0.50
Spoon and Fork Basket	1.50
Knife Box	0.38
Knife Board	0.50
Ice-Pick	0.25
Quart Measure	0.20
Pint "	0.15
Coffee Mill	1.00
Spice "	0.75
Spice Box	1.25

Sugar Canister	1.00
Tea "	0.25
Coffee "	0.25
Rice "	0.75
Bread Box	2.00
Cake "	1.50
Funnel	0.18
Set of Wash-tubs	5.00
Clothes Horse	1.50
Skirt Board	1.25
Bosom "	0.25
Wash Board	0.38
Wash Bench	1.75
6 doz. Clothes Pins	0.24
Wash Boiler	5.00
Stand for Flat-irons	0.15
Clothes Lines	0.75
6 Flat Irons in three sizes	3.50
Ironing Blankets	2.00
2 Carpet Brooms	1.00
Stove Brush	0.50
Scrubbing Brush	0.31
Window "	0.88
Dust Pan	0.25
Tea Kettle (tin)	1.50
Iron Pot (large)	2.50
" " (small)	1.50
Enamelled Preserving Kettle	2.00
2 Tin Saucepans	1.00
Steamer and Saucepan	2.00
Fry Pan (large)	1.00
" " (small)	0.50
Dish Pan (large)	1.50
" " (small)	1.00
Set of 4 round Tin Pans	1.00
Roll Pan	0.75
Cake " (round)	0.25
2 Bread Pans	0.76
Drip Pan	1.00

Baking Tin (oval)	0.50
" " (square)	0.38
2 Earthen Pans	0.76
2 Lipped Bowls	0.50
Set of White Bowls	0.45
Pudding Dish	0.30
" " (smaller)	0.20
Waffle Iron	1.75
Muffin Pan, and doz. rings	1.00
Soap-stone Griddle	1.75
Chopping Board	0.62
" Bowl	0.62
Bread "	0.75
Pastry Board	0.75
Rolling Pin	0.25
2 Pastry Cutters	0.20
2 Cake "	0.20
Coffee Boiler	0.75
2 Bakers	1.00
Meat Knife	0.75
Bread "	1.00
Chopping "	0.50
Cork Screw	0.25
Meat Fork	0.25
Toast "	0.15
Steak Tongs	0.50
Paste Jagger	0.15
3 Iron Spoons	0.50
2 Wooden "	0.20
Wooden Ladle	0.20
Vegetable Skimmer	0.25
2 Water Pails	0.60
Tin Dipper	0.25
Hair Sieve	0.75
Wire " (large)	0.50
" " (small)	0.31
Potato Masher	0.15
Flour Dredger	0.30
Pepper "	0.15

Lemon Squeezer	0.25
Cake Turner	0.20
Egg Beater	0.18
2 doz. Patty Pans	0.76
Gravy Strainer	0.25
6 Pie Plates	0.60
2 Graters	0.50
1 Nutmeg Grater	0.10
Set of Steel Skewers	0.75
Jelly Mould	0.75
Cullender (large)	0.75
" (small)	0.50
Salt Box	0.50
2 Gridirons (large and small)	1.00
Total	$109.30

EXTRAS.

Hair Broom	$1.75
Feather Duster	1.50
Stair Brush	1.12
Ash Kettle and Sifter	4 50
Garbage Pail	5.00
Batter Kettle	1.50
Enamelled Iron Saucepan	1.50
" " Kettle	2.00
Tinned Iron Saucepan	1.38
" " Kettle	1.50
" " Stewpan	1.75
Knife Washer	1.38
Jelly Strainer	3.00
Plate Warmer (japanned)	6.50
Table Service for Servants	3.62
Knives and Forks "	1.50
Porcelain-lined fire proof Baking Dish, silver plated outside	7.25
Clothes Wringer	8.00
Refrigerator	15.00
Upright Roaster and Jack	16.00

DINING-ROOM, 15 × 18.

2 Scotch Holland Window Shades with tassels, and patent rollers	$3.80
14 yards Satine for curtains for two windows	8.75
2 Window Cornices, walnut and gilt	7.00
30 yards American Ingrain Carpeting at $1.50 per yard	45.00
Walnut Extension Table for 12 persons	14.00
6 Chairs, walnut with cane seats	18.00
Walnut Sideboard	40.00
Water Cooler	3.00
Japanned Tea Tray	1.50
Small Tray for waiter	0.75
Britannia Coffee Pot	2.75
Egg Boiler (wire)	0.75
1 doz. Plated Table Forks	10.00
" " Dessert "	9.00
" " Table Spoons	10.00
" " Dessert "	9.00
" " Tea "	5.00
A Plated Dinner Caster	10.00
1 doz. Rubber-handled Knives	6.00
Carver and Steel	3.50
Set of Palm-leaf Table Mats	1.00
Dinner Bell	0.50
Plated Call Bell	1.50
Plain white French China Dinner Set, 134 pieces	30.00
Plain white French China Tea Set, 44 pieces	7.50
1 doz. Goblets, cut glass	4.00
" Tumblers, pressed glass	1.00
Celery Glass	0.75
2 Preserve Dishes, cut glass, and of different sizes	3.00
China Fruit Basket	1.50
Glass	1.00
Water Pitcher	0.75
Molasses Jug	0.75
1 doz Glass Salt Cellars	0.75
Total	$261.80

EXTRAS.

Solid Silver Table Spoons	$55 to 60
" " " Forks	" " "
" " Dessert "	40 to 45
" " " Spoons	" " "
" " Tea "	24 to 30
English Porcelain Dinner Set, 142 pieces	25.00
English Porcelain Tea Set, 56 pieces	5.25
1 doz. Ivory-handled Knives	7.00
Glass Knife-rests, each,	0.25
Set of Tea Trays	7.50
Plated Breakfast-caster	5.00

NOTE—The plated ware in the above list is of the very best triple plate, and will stand the wear of years. But spoons and forks are sold at lower prices, less heavily plated—quite good articles at two dollars less on each dozen.

The china sets are very full and of fine quality. A greatly inferior kind, less serviceable, and with fewer pieces, can be bought as low as seventeen dollars for a dinner service; and, in English Porcelain, as low as thirteen dollars.

TABLE-LINEN AND TOWELS.

8 yards Linen Damask, for 4 table-cloths	$4.80
2 Bordered Table-cloths, finer Damask, 2½ yards long	9.00
Material for 2 kitchen table-cloths	1.50
2 doz. Plain Napkins	4.00
1½ " Fine "	9.00
2 doz. Towels	6.00
1 " Fine Towels	9.00
6 Towels for servant's room	1.00
8 " " glass and china	1.60
8 Coarser Dish Towels	0.96
Total	$46.86

BED-ROOM, 15 × 18.

2 Window-shades	$3.80
14 yards Chintz for curtains for two windows	4.90
2 Window-cornices, walnut and gilt	6.00
30 yards American Ingrain Carpeting, at $1.50 per yard	45.00
Suit of Cottage Furniture, 10 pieces, with marble-top bureau, and wash-stand	50.00
Springs for Bedstead	5.00
Hair Mattress, (40 lbs.)	28.00
2 Feather Pillows, (4 lbs. each)	8.00
Feather Bolster, 6 lbs.)	6.00
1 pair Blankets	15.00
2 Marseilles Spreads	8.00
3 pairs Cotton Sheets, (9-4 wide)	8.25
" " " Pillow-cases, (5-4 wide)	3.60
3 Cotton Bolster-cases	1.56
White China Toilet Set, (13 pieces)	7.50
Total	$200.61

PARLOR AND SITTING-ROOM COMBINED, 15 × 18.

2 Scotch Holland Window Shades, with tassels and patent rollers	$4.40
14 yards Nottingham Lace, for two windows, with lambrequins of satine, covered with the lace, and cords and tassels	36.00
2 Gilt Window-cornices	10.00
30 yards English Ingrain Carpeting, at $1.75 per yard	52.50
Part of a Suit of Oiled Walnut Furniture, including sofa, large easy-chair, and small easy-chair, covered with woolen rep	84.00
2 Walnut Reception-chairs, straw seats	10.00
Sewing-chair	5.00

Fancy Chair	12.00
Walnut Table, with marble top	16.00
Total	$229.90

HALL AND STAIRWAY.

6 yards Venetian Carpeting for Hall, yard wide, at $2.50 per yard	$15.00
10 yards Venetian Carpeting for Stairway, half yard wide, at $1.25 per yard	12.50
1½ dozen Stair-pads	3.75
1½ dozen Brass Stair-rods	6.75
Hat-stand and Umbrella-rack	10.00
Total	$48.00

SERVANT'S ROOM, 15 × 15.

1 Window Shade and Trimmings	$1.00
25 yards Rag Carpeting	25.00
Small Table	2.00
Looking Glass	1.00
Wash-stand	2.00
Chair	0.75
Rocking-chair	3.00
Single Bedstead	5.00
Springs for Bedstead	3.00
Hair Mattress	10.00
1 pair Blankets	5.50
Colored Cotton Bed-spread	1.75
Feather Pillow, (3 lbs.)	3.00
3 pairs Cotton Sheets, (6-4 wide)	3.39
3 Pillow-cases	1.20
Toilet Set	2.50
Total	$70.09

EXTRAS.

Bureau, with glass	$10.00
Calico Comfortable	2.50

PUTNAM'S HANDY BOOK SERIES

HINTS ON DRESS;

OR,

WHAT TO WEAR, WHEN TO WEAR IT, AND HOW TO BUY IT.

BY

ETHEL C. GALE.

NEW YORK

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HINTS ON DRESS.

CHAPTER I.

OUTLINE HISTORY OF COSTUME.

To commence a chapter relating to the vagaries of Fashion, with a quotation from so antiquated an authority as Solomon, may seem absurd ; but, in fact, no truth is more patent to one who has even slightly explored the history of costume, than that "there is nothing new under the sun."

True, the traditional fig-leaves of Eden would seem to bear but small resemblance to the silks and laces of Broadway ; but the fig-leaves could not but have been formed into something of a tunic shape, and what is the polonaise of to-day, but a much be-puffed and tormented tunic? The *idea* has been the same from Eve downwards. For shame's sake, as well as for warmth, we must be clothed ; but vanity at first, and afterwards taste, have turned the shame and the necessity into occasions of display, and aids to beauty.

We say vanity first, for the traditions and remains of all nations show that taste in dress, as in all other arts, has been the slow growth of civilization and refinement ; while love of mere show in attire has been

one of the most striking of barbarian characteristics. In exact proportion to a people's mental advance has been the decrease of its love of mere finery in apparel, and the increase of its attention to those primary elements of beauty, form, proportion, color and fitness.

Traditions may carry us back farther, but the first costumes of which we have any accurate knowledge, are those of the ancient Assyrians and Egyptians, as displayed in the lately exhumed bas-reliefs of long-buried Nineveh, and in the sculptures and paintings discovered in the desecrated tombs of Egypt. These records of otherwise almost forgotten dynasties show, that while they had attained much skill in many of the useful arts, and could build temples and palaces which still astonish us with their grandeur, the ideas of these ancient peoples had not been turned so much toward beauty, as toward magnificence.

Especially is this shown in matters of dress. Richness of attire was the thing desired. If it is true, as has been said, that the tendencies of a people are as strikingly displayed in its costumes as in its laws, then the most elevated aims of all nations, previous to the rise of the Greeks, must have been the subjugation of their neighbors and the acquisition of wealth. Their garments seem formed with special reference to convenience, when attacking an enemy; and to show, when triumphing over the vanquished. Grace of form is sacrificed to utility in time of war, and to cumbrous decoration during the festivities of peace. Harmony of coloring is less considered than its vividness and quantity. Nature seems to have been entirely disregarded, and cost to have been made the standard of beauty. Thus, if a dye-stuff is expensive, it must

not only be used to color the robe, but the cheeks, the lips, the finger tips must be made flaming with scarlet, or ghastly with blue. As the possession of gold and of precious stones is a token of wealth and corresponding social importance, the first must be woven into silk or linen garments till they become so stiff that the "line of beauty" is vexed into graceless angles; and the second are strung in glittering ropes about the head, neck, arms, ankles, or waist, till the whole overloaded person seems ablaze with them.

All this is, of course, with the higher classes. With the lower, there is not only no attempt at beauty, but none at even display. Vanity is ever a selfish sentiment, and the powerful have never allowed their social inferiors to imitate, even at a distance, the extravagant costumes so complacently worn by themselves. For the laborers, three thousand years ago, there were no tunics heavy with gold, or robes of fine linen fretted with uncouth designs in toilsome needlework. The weaver of "purple, and scarlet, and fine linen," and the "cunning worker," in brass and in gold, wore only a coarse woolen apron, or at most, a short and sleeveless tunic of the same material, bound at the waist with a rope of camel's hair.

It was not until the rise of the Greeks that dress, ceasing to be a mere exhibition of its wearer's rank and wealth, became an exponent of ideas of beauty. This race, always joy and beauty-loving, at first by temperament and afterwards from cultivation, though devoting less time and labor to the manufacture of articles of dress than any of the great peoples that had preceded, or were contemporaneous with it, was the first to make a fine-art of dress. Discarding all that was

cumbrous, gaudy and unnatural, they adopted costumes which remain our best models of grace, and, in similarly genial climes, of utility.

But it must not be inferred that the drapery of Grecian art is intended as a representation of the dresses worn in the common occupations of life. The drapery of the old Greek sculptors was founded on artistic principles and ideas—not on those of practical utility; while the every-day dress, beautiful and simple though it always remained, was "conformed to the protection and comfort of the body, and the convenience of the wearer."

The principal garment of either sex, when engaged in any industrial employment, was the *chiton*, a sort of long and large under-waistcoat, sometimes reaching to the feet, but often only coming below the knee. This was sometimes provided with two long sleeves, and was sometimes destitute of any; but more frequently one arm was protected by a sleeve, while the other was left free, the garment being fastened on that side by a brooch on the shoulder. This one-sleeved variety was worn chiefly by laboring people. The chitôn when worn by women was confined at the waist by a broad belt, or zone.

The principal outer garment was the *himation*, a square piece of cloth, like a modern shawl, of more or less costly fabric, according to the means of the wearer. This was thrown over the left shoulder, drawn across the back to the right side, generally below the right arm, but sometimes over it, and again over the right shoulder or arm. Every lady of modern times knows that to carry a shawl well, requires both grace and adroitness on the part of the wearer. Therefore, it is

not a matter of astonishment that the art of wearing the *himation* was one much studied by the young Athenians of both sexes who desired to acquire reputations as leaders of the *ton*. The brilliant Alcibiades was as vain of his proficiency in this art as of any of his more valuable attainments.

In addition to the above two articles of universal wear, were several others in more or less common use, but all presenting the same general characteristics of freedom, lightness, and grace.

All ancient nations with any pretensions to civilization used sandals, or shoes of some sort, but among the Greeks the art of shoe-making was carried to an almost Parisian degree of perfection, though shoes were not considered so much an article of constant necessity as of occasional utility ; and it was not thought indecorous to receive visitors, or even, at times, to attend a banquet, with unshod feet.

Hats, though well known, and of several styles, were little worn, save by travellers, or agricultural laborers. Under the warm suns of a Grecian summer, men and women carried umbrellas and parasols almost precisely like our own, only that they could not be closed.

"And," says Pres. Felton, "let not our Broadway 'swell' imagine his race the first to whisk the slender cane with well-satisfied air ; for canes were known at least twenty-three centuries ago, being then sported by the degenerate descendants of Homer's spear-bearing heroes ; a faint reminiscence of that warlike weapon."

Gloves were only worn by laboring people when engaged in work of a kind to stain, or otherwise disfigure the hands.

In regard to the use of color, we see among the

Greeks as marked an improvement as in other respects, upon the ideas of less civilized nations. Although acquainted with all the more brilliant dyes used so freely by Syrians, Persians and Egyptians, all the glaring colors were shunned by the Greeks in dress, as being in bad taste, though they did not hesitate to employ the gayest hues, as well as the richest embroideries, for spreads and canopies to beds, couches, etc.

Jewelry, though worn in different degrees by all classes, was not put on in the tasteless profusion shown by the less cultivated nations of antiquity, and by some, even, of more recent date.

But it was, perhaps, in the styles of hair-dressing practised by the Greeks, that their superiority over other races in regard to personal adornment is most manifest. Hair was regarded as an important accessory to the beauty of the face ; in the words of one of their authors—" a thing to make the handsome handsomer ; the ugly more tolerable." Consequently they neither shaved it, nor hid it with turbans and caps, nor tortured it into towers, or wings of unnatural size, shape, and weight. Nor were their notions of the quantity of hair desirable on the human head so perverted and exaggerated that they deemed it necessary to borrow from other nations. The Greeks had many fashions of wearing the hair and beard, varying the style to suit the face and figure it was intended to adorn ; but while some of these might be considered an improvement upon the natural manner of growth, none were *un*natural.

In short, the whole graceful, harmonious and comfortable costume of the Greeks was the legitimate outgrowth of their superior mental and physical organi-

zation. They loved beauty, as they loved pleasure, for its own sake. Their cultivated minds gave them an appreciation of all that aided or developed beauty, as well as enabled them to define and adhere to its laws.

Having once discovered the beautiful, whether in nature or in art, they never suffered themselves to be seduced from its worship by the allurements of its deadliest foe, personal vanity.

Of no other nation can this be said. Even among the Etruscans, graceful and charming as their costumes were, and strongly resembling those of the Greeks, there is a falling away from the strict worship of beauty, marked by ostentatious profusion of ornament, and a useless accumulation of garments.

The costumes of the early Romans were derived directly from the Greeks, the *tunica* of the one corresponding with the *chiton* of the other, and the *toga* being only a fuller and larger *himation*.

In addition to the *tunica*, and the *toga*, both sexes wore in bad weather a *pœnula*, or weather-shield, precisely like the South-American *poncho* of to-day. This is a large square, or oblong piece of cloth, with a slit in the middle through which the head is thrust ; the *poncho*, or *pœnula*, then, falls nearly to the feet, but could be taken up at the sides on the hems if desired.

The *synthesis*, a mantle shorter and more convenient than the *toga*, was used instead of the latter at banquets.

Women habitually wore two tunics ; a short, sleeveless one, called the *tunica interim*, was next the person, and one called a *stola*, made with sleeves, very full, and so much longer than the figure that the superfluous

length was laid in folds around the waist. As an outer garment they wore a *palla*, or sort of shawl-cloak, resembling the masculine *toga*.

At no period of their history were the Roman ideas of beauty so clear or so controlling as those of the Greeks; but having a sincere reverence for this finer attribute of the elder nation, the younger adopted its costumes, and many of its customs, without question, devoting their own, perhaps grander, and certainly more aggressive intellects, to the founding and building up of a strong, free, and enlightened power.

As a people, the Romans were, from their first breath, exceedingly proud; but pride differs from vanity in that it is not an enervating principle. Licentiousness and vanity go hand in hand, and as the Romans became vain and sensual, the decay of their great power insensibly advanced. The progress of this decay can be as distinctly traced by the changes of costume as by the record of events. With the declension of the severe Roman pride, which had held itself haughtily above such effeminacy, came an increased use of embroideries, and of jewelry, and a greater attention to fineness of texture, so that the silks and fine needlework, in the days of the Republic deemed only appropriate for the despised courtesan, were, in the days of the Empire, sought by senators to make their magisterial robes.

Some few of the innovations, however, sprung from a desire for increased comfort; as, for instance, the adoption of the sort of trowsers called *braccæ*—whence the term breeches—worn during the colder months. This was an importation from the conquered Britons. Later, other portions of dress were borrowed from Teu-

tonic nations, and modern costumes seem to be the fantastic outgrowth of this commingling of civilization and barbarism, and of the requirements of widely differing climates. During all the long centuries since the enervated Roman civilization was overpowered by the rush and energy of the rude Northern tribes, the struggles of a genuine love of beauty with a merely personal vanity, and of ideas of practical utility with the caprice of the moment, has resulted in continually varying styles, generally vying with each other in grotesqueness, discomfort, and costliness; but occasionally—as in the case of the shirt—introducing some marked improvement. For this essential article of masculine attire, moderns are indebted to the Saxons. But it is mainly to the French, dating at least from the time of the Norman conquest of England, that the world of fashion owes most of its styles, both good and bad.

The appearance of a distinct waist and skirt of a gown, is first noticed in the costumes of Queen Philippa, wife of Edward III., of England, and of Queen Jeanne of Bourbon, wife of the French Charles the Wise, about the year 1360. Upon the lower edges of these waists, which are very long, reaching about eight inches below the natural line, the long and full skirts are laid in deep "side-plaits." The necks were cut half-low, and the sleeves long, and tight-fitting. A very little later than this, we begin to see long and full gored dresses of the style we now call "Gabrielle." Close-fitting basques appear soon after.

Previous to the fourteenth century, ladies' dresses seem to have been cut in one length from neck to ankle, not fitted to the waist with seams, but bound with a

girdle, and fastened on the shoulders, and outside of the sleeves with brooches.

Near the beginning of the fifteenth century, ladies began to drag about the long, unwieldy trains which have ever since, at longer or shorter intervals, afflicted their daughters.

But in nothing has Fashion ever so displayed her entire indifference to beauty, utility, and comfort, as in the head-dresses she has from time to time devised, with a perverted ingenuity akin to that which invented the tortures of the Inquisition.

Even in our own day we are sometimes forced to exclaim at the ugliness and the unhealthy weight of the modern *chignon*, and at the piles of impossible-to-be-natural hair which Fashion has ordained. But let us be thankful, O sisters, that she has not yet condemned us to the frightfully ugly and wretchedly uncomfortable head-dresses of the fifteenth century.

Margaret of Anjou, the heroic but ill-judged and ill-fated Queen of Henry VI. of England, has always been an object of pity for her many misfortunes. Among these we have never seen her head-dress mentioned, but surely it deserves a prominent place. Imagine it! A perpendicular tower of stiff gold network, filled in with velvet, and adorned with precious stones, the whole entirely concealing the hair, and rising to a height of eighteen inches above the forehead. This substantial erection is said to have possessed the additional merit of weighing eight pounds. Is it any wonder that poor Queen Margaret complained of her "fevered brain?"

A little later in the same century the celebrated steeple head-dresses were worn. These sometimes con-

sisted of a simple pointed roll of white linen rising to a height of eighteen inches from the head, covered with ample folds of fine white lawn, which floated to the ground, or were caught up under the arm. At other times the steeple was a structure differing from that worn by Queen Margaret only in shape, being made of the same stuffs, and equally high and heavy, but leaning backwards, like a miniature tower of Pisa, from the top of the head, terminating in a sharp point. Afterwards, two similar horns, diverging like those of a cow from the sides of the head, and each about two feet in height, were considered very stylish, especially when a long and heavily embroidered veil was suspended from between them.

During this century colored silks and velvets, richly trimmed with embroidery, or rare furs, or both, came into use among the higher classes.

Various styles of head-dresses besides those described, any one of which it would delight the "King of the Cannibal Islands" to sport at one of his banquets, were invented by tyrannical Fashion for both sexes, and slavishly worn during this and the following centuries. But it was during the seventeenth century that Fashion achieved that triumph of the grotesque, the full and powdered *periwig*, which in some of its many forms crowned the masculine head for more than a hundred years.

The mental advance of nations has rarely kept pace with their material growth. Consequently we observe that with the increase of wealth comes an increased love of display, without a proportionate love of beauty. A barbaric tendency to monstrous forms of personal adornment marks the entire period from the beginning

of the fourteenth till the middle of the eighteenth centuries. This of itself would show—even if we did not know from other sources—that notwithstanding that the latter half of this period is rendered illustrious by the most brilliant names in literature and art, the mass of all classes were uncultivated, save that among the higher orders a certain degree of external polish had been attained.

Within the above period are discovered the most hideous disfigurements which Fashion has ever devised. But let it not be imagined that women only were under her thrall, for notwithstanding it cannot be denied that woman is, as she has been described by an ancient writer, of a surly and *unfilial* nature, "an animal addicted to finery," we do not find that the female of the species is alone in the proclivity.

Let us glance at the costume of a gentleman of the court of Richard the Second of England, in the latter half of the fourteenth century. The coat, which is of a vivid green color, plentifully sprinkled with gold stars, is similar in cut to the *sacque* of the present day, but belted at the waist by a broad gold band. The sleeves of this coat are long, and fit over the palm of the hand to form mits, or half gloves. Hose covering the entire leg, and fastened on the outside with gold buttons, are made of cloth of different colors, one leg being red, the other blue. On the left side is suspended from the belt a small blue velvet bag, weighted with heavy gold tassels. On the head is a low, round, brimless and visorless cap of scarlet turned up with white.

More than a century later we find Henry, of Blue-Beard propensities, clad in a "*frocke* (or loose coat) of

crimson velvet, embroidered all over with gold of damask, the sleeves and breast slashed and lined with cloth of gold, and tied together with great buttons of diamonds, rubies, and orient pearls." The shirts were "pinched"—*i. e.* plaited, and embroidered with gold, silver, or silk. The long hose, which before Henry's time had been made of cloth, were now of knitted silk.

But Henry, with all his gay attire, never achieved anything as startling as the dress worn by the gallant lords who "danced attendance" on the whims of the younger, but more illustrious of his daughters. To whisper an insinuation against the "fardingales" worn by Elizabeth herself, may be thought scarcely polite in the days which have so lately endured the similar enormity of the "tilting hoops," and have not yet banished the "panier;" but the "trunk-hose" worn by the Earl of Leicester and his compeers, have so long disappeared that they may be spoken of without offence.

The "trunk-hose" were short and very full breeches of velvet, silk, satin or damask, of the brightest colors, gathered into tight bands at a short distance above the knee, and distended so that their wearers could attain the coveted circumference of nearly three yards about the hips, by a stuffing of curled horse-hair, or of bran. That is, one of these materials was always *supposed* to form the stuffing; but in the latter part of the reign of James 1st—for the trunk-hose, seeming endowed with as much vitality as the derided but irrepressible hoop, endured with various modifications almost till the advent of Cromwell—the person of a young dandy under arrest for some crime (not an unusual thing with

the "gay cavaliers") was searched and the padding of his trunk-hose is thus recorded :

"A pair of sheets,
Two table cloths,
Ten napkins,
Four shirts,
A hand glass,
A comb, and
A night-cap."

Why this unlucky dandy should have thus made a peripatetic valise of himself is not mentioned. The offence for which he was under arrest was *not* that of *petit larceny.*

To return to the costume of the "magnificent Earl" and his contemporaries.

Surmounting the trunk-hose was a long-waisted *doublet*, a sort of compromise between a vest and a coat, made of the richest material, and "quilted and stuffed, slashed, jagged, pinched and laced." Over the doublet were worn "as many varieties of coats and jerkins as there are days in a year. The short cloaks were of the Spanish, French, and Dutch cuts, and made of cloth, silk, velvet and taffeta of all colors, trimmed with gold, silver, and silk lace, and glass bugles, inside and outside being equally superb." The cap was of velvet, without brim or visor, but with a gold band about the head, and trimmed with a handsome plume. The shoes were trimmed with full rosettes of ribbon, the manufacture of which was then first introduced into England. The long stockings were of knitted silk, and generally of some gay color contrasting with that of the trunk-hose.

But the crowning glory of the costumes of both sexes during the reign of Elizabeth was the stiff, grotesque, torturing "ruff."

Ministers of every religion, from the ancient priest to the modern lay preacher, have always delivered jeremiads, and invectives, against the more remarkable freaks of passing fashion, therefore we cannot wonder that many pulpit orators assailed the ruff. One of these tilters against the windmill of the time, tells his congregation that there is a "certain liquid matter called *starch*, wherein the Devil hath learned the Holland washerwomen to wash and dive their ruffs, which being dry will then stand stiff and invincible about their necks."

Of course it is not to be imagined that any of the preachers' hearers who might have hitherto escaped a knowledge of this new invention of his unnamable Majesty, would now seek to be instructed in its mysteries! Human nature, as we all know, having ever manifested an aversion to tasting forbidden fruit.

At short and infrequent intervals through this whole period—from the beginning of the fourteenth to that of the eighteenth centuries—Fashion would consent, at the bidding of some monarch more tasteful than the ordinary, to banish for a while her propensity for the grotesque and the splendid. But she only "stooped to conquer," for after each such concession she indulged in yet more astonishing *whimsies*. In France these were often more ridiculous than in England; for in that country Fashion has ever been more fickle than elsewhere, and in her haste to adopt the new, she has more often accepted the hideous or the comic.

We are not, for instance, accustomed to consider as especially beautiful the long-pointed bodice, the puffed sleeves, the big fardingale, the belligerent-looking ruff, and the bat-wing-like head-dress of Queen Elizabeth. When descending the broad staircase at Hampton Court, or proceeding through the halls of Kenilworth, we fancy she must have borne a striking resemblance to a "ship-of-the-line" under full sail. But Elizabeth, in adapting, had greatly modified the costume of her foes across the Channel, especially by reducing the circumference of the shoulders from eight feet to five. If Elizabeth looked like a ship-of-the-line, a French lady of the court of Henry III. must have appeared as formidable, and as clumsy, as the whole unwieldy Spanish Armada! With her fardingale so very large about the hips, but allowing the heavy skirts to dangle as they pleased below; with her excessively long and much be-padded waist; her enormous sleeves, puffed out by means of bags of down to a size suggestive of aerial voyages, an effect heightened by the projecting eighteen-inch-wide wings of her flat head-dress; and with her stiffly starched ruff, sometimes two feet in width, this walking monument to the follies of Fashion, could never have seemed beautiful to any but the most perverted taste.

As a rule, the Spanish costumes have always conformed more nearly to true ideas of beauty than those of any other modern nation. The Spaniards have rarely adopted unnatural, ungraceful fashions. They have been too proud to be vain. Hence while their costumes have always been rich, and worn with a grace and ease peculiar to themselves, they have but seldom resorted to that vulgar excess of ornament, which has been such

a blemish in the attire of peoples in most respects more enlightened than they.

In England, during the reign of Charles I., the costumes of both sexes were approximated to those of Spain, and are always quoted as being the most picturesque England has ever been able to boast.

A dress of Charles I. is thus described: "A dark green velvet doublet, with broad and soft lace collar gathered on a band, and tied at the throat with cord and tassels; and with wide ruffles at the wrists turned back, scalloped, and trimmed with lace. Breeches of the same material and color as the doublet tied below the knee." (Charles himself had abandoned the grotesque trunk-hose very early in his reign, though many did not relinquish them till after the days of the Cromwellian Revolution.) "Red stockings, black shoes, with dark green shoe-roses, and a short red cloak lined with blue, with a gold star on the shoulder, completed this costume."

The dress of one of his gay young cavaliers resembled that of the king, but was much and fantastically embroidered. Over the right shoulder passed the sword belt, wrought and presented by his "ladye-love," and in it was hung the short Spanish rapier. In the flapping beaver hat was worn a plume of feathers confined by a jewel.

Though more brightly colored, and more fanciful than would now be considered manly, the dress of Charles the First was in undeniably good taste; and that of his Queen, with its full flowing skirt, its half-close sleeve, its falling collar edged with rich lace, and the natural hair worn in graceful ringlets, was both simple and elegant. Amid much that was better lost,

the stern Puritan zeal of Cromwell and his followers swept away these picturesque costumes, and upon the accession of Charles the Second they were not restored in their purity. As the court of Charles II. had degenerated in morality from that of his father, so had it in dress. The chivalric character of both costume and society had deteriorated—the one into grotesqueness, the other into license.

From a dramatic pastoral written in this reign, we extract a catalogue of articles considered necessary to a lady's toilet, by contrast with which we think even a modern belle's list of essentials might seem moderate.

"Chains, coronets, pendens, bracelets, and ear rings;
Pins, girdles, spangles, embroyderies, and rings,
Shadomes, rebutaines, ribbons, ruffs, cuffs, falls;
Scarfes, feathers, fans, masks, muffs, laces, cauls;
Thin tiffanies, cobweb lawn, and fardingales;
Sweet fals, vayles, wimples, glasses, crisping pins;
Pots of ointment, combs, with poking sticks and bodkins;
Coyfes, gargets, fringes, rowles, fillets, and hair laces;
Silks, damasks, velvets, tinsels, cloth of gold;
And tissues with colors of a hundred fold.

* * * * * * * *

Waters she hath to make her face to shine;
Confections eke to clarify her skin;
Lip salves and cloths of a rich scarlet dye
She hath, which to her cheeks she doth apply;
Ointment wherewith she rubbeth o'er her face,
And lustrifies her beauty's dying grace."

Later than this, in 1719, during the reign of the first George, we find a priced list of garments denominated "essential" to every lady's wardrobe.

The aggregate cost amounts to about $2,000, which, when the difference in the value of money, and the fact

that very few articles of daily utility are enumerated, are taken into account, would make the actual outfit nearly or quite equal to a $10,000 *trousseau* in our day, and sufficiently shows that the outcry against extravagance, and the cause for it, are not peculiar to the nineteenth century.

	£	*s.*	*d.*
Smock of Cambric Holland	2	2	0
Marseilles quilted petticoat	3	6	0
Hoop petticoat covered with tabinet	2	15	0
French or Italian quilted silk petticoat	10	0	0
Mantua and petticoat of French brocade	78	0	0
French point, or Flanders lace head-dress, ruffles and tucker	80	0	0
English stays	3	0	0
French necklace	1	5	0
Flanders lace handkerchief	10	0	0
French or Italian flowers for hair	2	0	0
Italian fan	5	0	0
1 pr. English silk stockings	1	0	0
1 pr. English shoes	2	10	0
French girdle	0	15	0
Cambric handkerchief	0	10	0
French kid gloves	0	2	6
" *à-la-mode* hood (black)	0	15	0
" laced hood	5	5	0
" embroidered bosom-knot	2	2	0
" garters	1	5	0
Pockets, Marseilles quilting	1	5	0
Muff	5	5	0
Sable tippet	15	0	0
Lining Italian lutestring	8	0	0
1 pr. thread stockings	0	10	0
Turkish handkerchief	5	5	0
Leghorn hat	1	10	0
Beaver hat and feather (riding)	3	0	0
Riding habit	47	10	0
Three dresses for masquerade, two from Venice	36	0	0
Parisian dress of green velvet *à la sultane*	123	15	0

From the Restoration of Charles the Second to the present day has proceeded, with all the varying fortunes of war, the struggle between French art and Puritanic severity ; the old aristocratic ideas of caste, and the democratic ideas of utility ; with an occasional gleam of good taste on both sides. The greatest shock to the old ideas and ways being given by the French Revolution. The costumes adopted by the *sans culottes*, the Communists of that day, though as utterly tasteless as any that could well be devised, yet embodied the principle of utility which has ever since held its ground in the costumes of men, and to a certain extent in those of women, though over the latter Fashion still reigns supreme, and concerning her it is only necessary to quote the words of Hazlitt :

"Fashion," says this brilliant essayist, "constantly begins and ends in two things it abhors most—singularity and vulgarity. It is the perpetual setting up and then disowning a certain standard of taste, elegance and refinement, which has no other formation or authority than that it is the prevailing distraction of the moment ; which was yesterday ridiculous from its being new, and to-morrow will be odious from its being common. It is one of the most slight and insignificant of all things. It cannot be lasting, for it depends on the constant change and shifting of its own harlequin disguises ; it cannot be sterling, for, if it were, it could not depend on the breath of caprice ; it must be superficial to produce its immediate effect on the gaping crowd ; and frivolous to admit of its being assumed at pleasure by the number of those who affect to be in the fashion to be distinguished from the rest of the world. It is not anything in itself nor the sign of anything, but

the folly and vanity of those who rely upon it as their greatest pride and ornament. It takes the firmest hold of weak, flimsy, and narrow minds; of those whose emptiness conceives of nothing excellent but what is thought so by others. That which is good for anything is the better for being widely diffused. But fashion is the abortive issue of vain ostentation and exclusive egotism; it is haughty, trifling, affected, servile, despotic, mean and ambitious, precise and fantastical, all in a breath—tied to no rule, and bound to conform to every rule of the minute."

CHAPTER II.

WHAT IT IS TO BE WELL DRESSED.

THE standard of good dressing varies much—as we all know—in different parts of the world. The King of *Waganda*, for instance, thinks himself, and is fancied by his subjects, to be in the best possible array when attired in a white sheet and a necklace ; and the monarch of the Fiji Islands is radiant over the possession of a coat, regardless that he has no corresponding "nether garments;" while the beautiful ex-Empress of the French could never have been better satisfied with her choicest *toilette*, than is the muddy-hued Queen of Otaheite, with her numerous strings of gay-colored beads, and the scanty folds of the not over-clean drapery she wraps about her hips.

On account of this difference of opinion, it is well at the outset to define what we mean by DRESSING WELL.

We certainly do *not* mean that to be well dressed it is necessary to be in the extreme of the *mode;* nor that it is essential that a certain amount of money shall have been expended. We do not even mean that we think a person really well dressed, although in form, color and material the costume may be perfect, unless other elements are also taken into consideration.

The first of these essentials we consider to be *health*. No person is well dressed who is not attired with reference to this. The prettiest muslin ever brought from India, made up in the latest style, and that most becoming to the wearer, loses all its prettiness if worn on an evening when a cashmere would be more comfortable. The most beautiful lace mantle ever wrought in Chantilly, if worn in a December snow-storm would not look as well as a rough blanket shawl; for all observers would feel that the wearer was inviting a quick consumption. In these cases every one can recognize the sense of discomfort which would render the fine fabric less agreeable to the eye than the coarser; but there are other violations of the laws of health, which, being more usual, would attract less observation.

It is not our intention to preach a long sermon against tight lacing, for the woman who has drawn her waist into the meagre bounds admired by a perverted taste, (by the same process giving to her shoulders a most disproportionate size,) and who is thus every day violating her own constitution, and shocking artistic eyes, is incorrigible. If, after it has been proved time and time again, that sudden death is the not infrequent result of tight lacing, and that failing this, a lifetime of suffering is the sure penalty, a woman will still persist in the practice, we suppose there is no help for her; at least we feel sure that no words of ours will avail. If she will suffer, she will. But, in the name of the good sense she so defies, we adjure her not to imagine herself well dressed; for though her costume may be perfect in respect of color, material and fashion, it fails in the two important requisites,—healthfulness and symmetry of form.

Said an elderly gentleman one day, "Where do the girls get such perverted notions of beauty? Here were my own daughters, never were taught anything of that sort at home, but when they returned from school they were drawn up in packs of torturing bones, till they looked as pinched and starved as weasels. Couldn't walk forty rods without fainting; couldn't take a long breath; couldn't laugh; couldn't do anything, but look as miserable as if they were on their way to the gallows! I told the girls I'd disown 'em if they didn't take the things off; and so they did, and soon looked like themselves again. But what in the world possessed 'em to deform themselves in that style in the first place? Where did they get the notion?"

Poor, puzzled *Pater-familias* did not remember that he had just said his girls came home from *school* encased in steel. The idea that a disproportionately small waist is beautiful, is one of the many immature and epidemic fancies of sweet sixteen. Once let it enter a school, and in spite of physiology, and the teachers, it spreads like the measles. If a girl lives to be twenty years of age without falling into the practice of tight lacing, her innate good sense and taste may be trusted to prevent her ever doing so. But in this, as in other things, the bending of the twig has much to do with the inclination of the tree, and the taste once so perverted that it discovers beauty in an unnaturally small waist, there is little hope of reform till when, too late to restore the lost symmetry, the vanished color, the elastic step, and the free respiration, the "doctor's orders" have banished the offending corset, and with it the heavy, dangling skirts which are its almost invariable accompaniment.

We do not like to say that a woman in a low-necked gown is never well dressed, for there are many women to whom the style is becoming, and a few to whom the absence of clothing about neck and arms is decidedly more comfortable than its presence. But to the majority, "full-dress" at the ball to-night signifies a wretched cold to-morrow; and a frequent recurrence of such colds has a significance, the thought of which, if it were allowed to intrude itself, would not enhance the pleasures of the evening.

As "constant dropping wears away rocks," we might hope for some improvement in the healthfulness of the fashion of dress, from the incessant squibs of the merry and the expostulations of the earnest, if only—the moment a slight impression is made—ingenious fashion did not whisk away the offending article, merely to substitute another equally dangerous and absurd, but diverse.

Thus, in the days of our grandmothers, delicate kid slippers were thought the only proper *footing* for a lady, and in spite of threatening consumptions, they were worn in fair weather and in foul, upon chilly pavements or on muddy roads; until, set upon by doctors and jokers, they were fairly scolded and hooted from the streets.

Then we are allowed a thick, comfortable, high ankled shoe, with even the privilege of wearing a rubber overshoe in wet weather; and, congratulating themselves upon the victory of common sense over fashion, the doctors and jokers turn their remonstrances and jests in another direction, when—presto! we have the thick shoe, to be sure, but mounted upon such a heel! And that heel brought forward till it presses di-

rectly under the tender hollow of the foot. And not only this, but after the poor foot has been forced to shift the duty of carrying the body from the heel, to which it rightfully belongs, upon the toes, which, at most, should only be considered as assistants, to do the light work, behold! the toes are so tightly encased in their leathern prison that they have no room to act freely.

Again, the grave and the merry have turned their shafts upon the foot-gear, and we wish them all success, but are sure that, if they attain it, the victory will be but transient. Fashion will soon intrench herself behind a new fortification of follies, or cunningly retire to an old, one long forgotten, there to laugh at her pursuers.

If fashion's assailants achieve no more, they at least accomplish this: she is not allowed to kill all her victims in the same way. If the thin slippers invited pneumonias, and the narrow quarters for the toes induce abundant and torturing corns, while the high heels are devoted to the extension of spinal complaints, or the more immediate danger of breaking the wearer's neck, there is at least a pleasing variety in the modes of assassination.

But is it necessary that we should be thus tormented, and slowly murdered, in order to be well-dressed? Scout the notion, all ye daughters of Good Taste! You know it is not. That, in fact, the ideas of pain and danger connected with these torturing fashions, destroy all the pleasure which the sight of an otherwise well-dressed women would afford.

The second point which we would consider essential, is NEATNESS.

So obvious is this that it might be supposed entirely

superfluous to mention it, did not our eyes too often convince us that it is not always considered.

We do not mean that the eyes of those who move in respectable circles are often offended by the absence of strictly personal cleanliness, though the writer has an unhappy recollection of once having been confined for a trip of two hundred miles in the same car-seat with a woman faultlessly attired, and—what was more surprising—apparently of cultivated mind and manners, whose neck and ears had long felt the need of soap and water; but we often see much-be-draggled clothes worn by women who consider themselves entitled to be called ladies. But in whatever circle she may move, we feel certain that the woman cannot be self-respecting who can trail a long skirt across a muddy street, entailing not only the ruin of the dress, but the certain be-daubing of stockings and underclothes, with which the soiled petticoats must come in contact.

And that there are many women thus unfortunately devoid of self-respect, the daily scenes in our streets assure us. Who cannot recall the sight of elegant velvet cloaks worn above dresses of costliest silk, the skirts of which have been trailed through mud and dust, till ornamented with a fringe not to be found for sale on Stewart's counters, and dyed of a nasty color like nothing on earth but itself.

Of course it is always conceded that a woman who can thus recklessly allow a dress to get in this condition, has but a short time enjoyed the privilege of dressing herself fashionably and expensively, and it is often suspected that a woman so destitute of delicate womanly instincts must be degraded to the lowest moral level. But though we may charitably remember that some of

these are kind-hearted and well-meaning women, we know that they are destitute of refinement, and of common sense, and the expressive terms "shoddy," or "petroleum," will involuntarily flash across our minds whenever we see one of these richly dressed, but be draggled women, who, whatever their wealth or their ambition may be, deserve no better name than that of "common slovens."

Another point in which neatness is often offended, and by those, too, who would know better than to drag costly materials through the mire, is in wearing "about house" shabby finery, rather than neater and plainer dresses. There are many who seem to imagine that when wearing an antiquated, spotted, and even ragged silk, they are better dressed than when attired in something that, though whole and clean, is of plainer fashion and material. Whereas there is nothing that so recalls the sight of certain groups of three tarnished gilt balls, to be seen over sundry dingy windows on the Bowery; and one cannot help wondering whether the woman wearing this mass of dilapidated flouncing, fringe, and lace, has just been fitted out at "her uncle's," or whether she is just about to proceed to his premises to dispose of the wretched assortment. Infinitely better does a woman clad in a simple, but fresh and tasteful calico, deserve the epithet, well-dressed, than one attired in the most expensive materials, if these by long use, or from any other cause, have become soiled or frayed.

The same is true, in even greater degree, in regard to under-clothes. The most elaborate needlework only adds to the disgust one feels if the garments it adorns are begrimed or torn; while those of plainest fashion,

if clean and whole, or neatly mended, are always pleasing to the eye.

Our third essential to good dressing is, BECOMINGNESS.

One may be attired in the most healthful of costumes, and both person, and every article of clothing may be in the most spotless condition, and yet shock the eye of taste.

To be well-dressed, one must always take into consideration the complexion, age, features, and figure of the wearer, and the harmony of the different parts of the costume. Thus the brunette cannot wear the delicate shades so beautiful for the blonde ; and the woman of sixty becomes ridiculous if tricked out with the fluttering ribbons and bright colors appropriate at sixteen. The sylph who scarcely turns the scales at a hundred pounds, cannot carry the flowing mantles which have become necessary to obscure the too expansive outlines of the matron, whose position in a carriage is sufficiently indicated by the condition of the springs. The woman whose sharp, hatchet-like features seem fashioned to hew her way through the world, should not follow the Japanese style of hair-dressing ; nor should the woman whose head resembles a large red cabbage, deck herself in big butterfly bows of scarlet ribbon, a jaunty little round hat, and a *chignon,* emulating the proportions of the Rotunda of our National Capitol.

Neither should there ever be a mixture of uncongenial colors and materials. About color we shall speak again, and in regard to inharmonious materials it might seem unnecessary to say much, did we not know that this is a point frequently forgotten. Thus, who cannot remember having seen a rich silk trimmed with

guipure-lace, or even with a cheap imitation thereof; or a heavy cashmere adorned with "real" Chantilly; or a point-lace collar worn with a plain merino dress?

And this, too, not by people who are careless in matters of dress, but by those who, from vanity or ostentation, pay to it a good deal of misdirected attention. These are the persons who will wear a costly India shawl over a morning wrapper when taking an early drive in the Park, or undergoing the fatigues of a shopping excursion; who will wear diamonds and a calico dress at breakfast; and an expensive silk with lava pin and ear-rings at a dinner party; who will don snowy ermine furs over a somewhat *passée* alpaca suit when attending to the family marketing, or a beautiful velvet cloak which cannot hide the kid gloves so soiled and worn that they would scarcely suffice to protect the hands of the housemaid while emptying the ashes from the grate; who will wear a silk over-dress with a calico skirt, or an alpaca with a grenadine; or who will mount a lace bonnet over a water-proof cloak.

Does any one fancy these to be imaginary cases of incongruity? We wish they were; but they are all "studies from life," and a little observation at hotels, on steamboats and cars, and on the streets, even if the social circles each moves in do not afford such examples, will convince the incredulous that we have mentioned only a few of the most obvious violations of good taste in this respect.

It is a good rule to wear at the same time only articles of a corresponding price, fineness of texture, and present condition.

Then one will never be seen with an over-dress of Lyons velvet, and a skirt of serge; though both may be

new, and the serge as good in its place as the velvet. Nor with a lace shawl over a cloth dress ; nor with an elegant new bonnet accompanied by an old and shabby wrap ; nor yet shall we attempt to make a "dowdy" dress look fresh by adorning it with bright new ribbons and neckties.

Our fourth point, without attention to which we cannot be considered well dressed, is, WHAT WE CAN HONESTLY AFFORD.

So universal is the notion that "fine feathers make fine birds," that it is in too many cases forgotten that it is impossible for any to be considered well dressed, who have exceeded not merely the actual, but the proportionate limits of their purses. Thus, a woman who has an income of but $600 over the sum necessary for her board, even though she does not run a penny in debt, yet if she expends that amount upon her dress, has transgressed the rules of good taste. She who is attired in a more expensive manner than her income will warrant, can never be well dressed. Good Sense and Good Taste are Siamese twins ; when the one is ignored the other is slighted ; when the one is wounded the other feels the hurt. And Good Sense imperatively demands that health, duty to others, the cultivation of the mind, and a provision for the future, should all be taken into consideration before the mere decoration of the person.

In our land Good Taste—rudely treated though it is in so many ways—is probably not so often violated in any one thing as in this matter of disproportionate expense. It is perhaps a natural, but not the less an unfortunate result of the chaotic state of our society. The wives of "merchant-princes" fancy that, in order to

carry out the democratic "free and equal" idea, they must emulate the attire of other Princesses, and not being "to the manner born," are very apt to over-do the matter, and wear on a toilsome round of shopping, or during a social evening at home, costumes which those they ignorantly strive to imitate would reserve for an "occasion of state," or for an appearance at an opera.

These would-be Princesses of ours are not quite so fond of the "free-and-equal" idea as applied to those beneath them in what forms their standard of social importance, the possession of money. But the wife of the clerk expires with envy if she cannot wear as fine a dress as the wife of the senior partner in "the firm;" and as there is no sumptuary law to prevent her wearing anything she likes, and can procure, domestic comfort, future independence, the education of her children, and her own mental improvement, are frequently all sacrified to obtain the coveted article of dress.

This desire for mere richness of attire at such an expense of all that should make life valuable, is often a species of insanity, and is all the worse that it is apt to assume an epidemic form. This may be noticed especially in our cities. Let a little church be started in some quiet street; a church at which for awhile only plain people, devout worshippers of God, attend. By and by, from some reason, a "dressy" woman begins to frequent this humble church. It may be that she personally does not transgress our rule of dressing in proportion to her means, but to emulate her elegance of toilet would tax to the utmost the resources of those among whom she has just come. She may make no acquaintances among the congregation, but insensibly each feminine member of it gets to spending, week by

week, a trifle more money and a good deal more thought on her attire, until finally the epidemic has become raging, and scarce half a dozen of the original God-fearing assembly have escaped the contagion.

The same result, though in a less marked degree, is often seen to follow the advent of a fashionable family into a quiet street. It becomes mortifying to Mrs. Smith, whose best winter suit is a cashmere, and most elegant summer costume a prettily trimmed black grenadine, to see Mrs. Brown passing up and down the steps, and sometimes appearing at the windows of the opposite house, clad in the loveliest of velvets and laces; and especially mortifying, if Mr. Smith discovers that Mr. Brown's income is not larger than his own. Mortifying, that is, if, as is too often the case, Mrs. Smith was educated to consider personal appearance as of more value than her husband's reputation for honor and honesty, or than her own for good sense and taste.

That this envious sensibility to mere show should exist among persons otherwise sane, is incomprehensible, but the fact is patent. It is found in all classes, and is an evil only shaken off by the exertion of strong good sense and taste on the part of some, and of a religious conviction of its wickedness on that of others.

The-self supporting woman who receives a salary of $1,000, from which she must pay all her expenses, often ruins her health by taking very "cheap board," a term which implies a deficiency both in quantity and quality of food, as well as the occupancy of a small but uncomfortable room; starves her mind by robbing it of its proper supply of good reading; narrows her heart, because she "cannot afford" to increase its riches by sparing from her salary a little for those who are poorer

than she; and cheats her future by allowing her to save nothing "against a rainy day;" all that she may have the means to dress in what is, after all, but a shabby imitation of the elegance of attire achieved by the object of her admiration, the cotton manufacturer's daughter. No one whose thoughts are given to this pursuit can grow mentally, and between the daily duties and the labors of "altering over," of trying to make old dresses "look as good as new," the time of our would-be butterfly is so taken up that she cannot spare any for the open-air exercise health demands, and before she is thirty years old the poor victim to false notions, instead of the fresh, vigorous, genial, intelligent person she should be, has become a faded, singular, wizened specimen of perverted womanhood.

The same story repeats itself in every walk of life, the only exceptions being those who have emancipated themselves from the prevailing notion that the standard of taste and expense set by the very rich, must be followed as closely as possible by all. That it requires some independence of mind to effect this emancipation cannot be denied; but when effected, it brings its reward in many ways. One of these is that we are sure not to be made ridiculous by wearing humble imitations of unattainable elegances of toilet; while we may always be dressed comfortably, neatly, and becomingly, if we so choose, with the added satisfaction of knowing that we are wearing only what we can well afford, without detriment to any duty owed to ourselves or to others.

The fifth point which we should consider, is, *our station in life.*

In some respects this may seem to come under the

preceding head, for in this country, unfortunately, social position is often determined by the number of thousands one possesses.

But, happily, this is not always the case. There are instances where the ownership of enormous wealth will not secure an *entrée* in good society, and other instances where poverty—if accompanied by brains and goodness—cannot exclude from its precincts. If society universally deserved the name of "good," the matter of dollars would never make a breath of difference in the position of its members. Men and women would stand or fall in its estimation by reason of good or bad breeding, of kindness or unkindness, of intelligence or ignorance, of virtue or vice, of their promise for the future, or of what they have already achieved.

But as the vulgar tyranny of the "almighty dollar" is still endured even by many who inwardly revolt at it, it becomes necessary to state that when we say that one's station in life should be considered, we do not mean that because one is the luckless possessor of millions, without a corresponding education and "breeding," we should think ourselves entitled to be decked with all the jewels of a monarch or the silks of the East. If the "Lily of Poverty Flat" has not the tastes and the cultivation which *without* her dollars would entitle her to a foremost place in the social ranks, she should not flourish about in the diamonds and the laces of a princess. To allow one's dress to outshine one's self, is in the very worst possible taste, and no *lady* will ever be guilty of the offence. Neatly and becomingly attired one should wish to be at all times, but it is far better to have it remarked, "How plainly Mrs.

Robinson dresses," than, "How wretchedly over-dressed that Mrs. Jones always appears."

In addition to the social distinctions made by wealth and cultivation, there are others, though but slightly defined, conferred by the "bread-winner's" calling, and by the length of time during which a family has been received into society.

These distinctions, though acknowledged by all, are so vague that no rule can be given, save the ever safe one, *In all cases prefer simple elegance to mere display.* It is far better that the wife of our President should appear in a plain alpaca, than that the daughter of a Treasury-clerk should disport herself in velvets and diamonds.

Our last point is, *present occupation.*

By which we mean, not our profession or calling, but the business or pleasure in which we happen to be engaged at the moment. Thus, we would not appear at breakfast in the attire which would be suitable at dinner; nor at an evening party in the toilet we should wear when shopping; nor at church in the costume in which we should appear at an opera.

We have sometimes read, with mingled amusement and vexation, the fourth rate stories of fourth rate papers and magazines, wherein the heroine who has suffered from a reverse of fortune, rising with commendable courage to meet her disasters and cheer her aged father and disconsolate husband, after their forced retirement to a small country place, has immediately commenced picking strawberries for breakfast, coming in from the garden with cool and smiling face, becomingly set off by her spotless white muslin adorned with blue ribbons.

Now white muslin forms the coolest and freshest-looking of summer toilets, we all know; and we hope to live to see the day when shall be invented a fabric equally thin, soft and pure, with the additional advantages of being impenetrable to dew or rain, and as easily cleansed as varnished paint. But until that day comes we would advise white muslins to refrain from strawberry-beds; especially when the dew is on the vines.

Of course it is not to be supposed that any one besides these impossible heroines is ever absurd enough thus to attempt the strawberry and muslin feat, but other almost equally ridiculous examples of inappropriateness of dress can be seen any day. White petticoats, embroidered or ruffled to the last degree, are often worn for a dusty walk along a country road, or through a dewy lane in the moonlight, with but one inevitable result; fresh and spotless though they might be at the start, crumpled and dirty they must be in the end; causing to the wearer, if she be a neat woman, much open or concealed vexation of spirit.

Other examples of inappropriateness of attire are sometimes furnished by a woman who pays a visit, carrying with her all her best apparel. The visit is to be but short, and both time and place offer small room for the display of her wardrobe, but it *must be shown*. Consequently the poor victim to her own vanity changes her costume twice or thrice a day until all have been exhibited, fatiguing herself, and disgusting her friends, for no end but to make herself ridiculous to bystanders. Such a woman would wear a ball-dress at a funeral rather than not have it seen. Admired, even she, one would suppose, would know it could not be under cir-

cumstances so inappropriate; for certainly a woman is never well-dressed when clad in out-of-place garments, no matter how beautiful they are in themselves, nor how becoming they may be to the face and figure of the wearer.

CHAPTER III.

THINGS INDISPENSABLE.

Every woman should so arrange that her wardrobe may contain articles suitable for all the common uses of her life. For incidental uses she may in general safely trust to the inspiration and the resources of the moment. What novels are to literature, what champagne is to daily food and drink, are *occasional* dresses to a woman's wardrobe. Of course if the whole life is of the novel and champagne order, the occasions requiring special and elegant dresses will be many, and should be provided for. But to the class of mental, moral and physical dyspeptics, who crave no diet save the light, brilliant, stimulating, and substanceless, we do not propose to address ourselves. It is only those whose lives have a meaning, who will profit by any suggestions we may have to make. Those women whose elevated aims in life, and devotion to objects of their love and duty, save them from the degradation of a slavery to vanity and ostentation, yet who, from the very refinement of nature and nobleness of mind which has given them their high purposes, and spirit of devotion to others, would desire always to wear the tasteful and the fitting.

Of course in this little chapter one cannot expect to

mention nearly all of the articles that many would think indispensable—for these vary with each individual —but we do not intend to include any that could possibly be considered superfluities, and would head our list with underclothes.

As the fashion of these is not material, one should always keep on hand a supply of plainly and neatly made and trimmed undergarments, that will prove sufficient for any emergency of accident or illness. All fine and expensive needlework on such articles will be shunned by women who regard both neatness and economy, for besides that these embroideries are costly luxuries in the first place, they are very quickly soiled and torn, and require frequent renewal. And they are no less expensive if wrought by the wearer's own hands; but rather more so, for they consume much time that might be better spent. The little leisure that occupied women have for fancy work, may be more profitably applied to making articles which will be less trying to the eyesight, and when completed will afford more general pleasure.

Of morning-dresses or business-suits there should always be a good, though not a very large supply. No half-worn finery can, or ought to take the place of these. Every woman needs business dresses just as much as her husband, father, or brother need their business coats. And as a woman's employments usually vary more than a man's, she requires a greater number of the suits, which should vary to fit her temporary occupation. Thus, the "house-mothers," or daughters, who have frequently to assume some of the duties of housemaid, or of cook, should keep constantly in readiness dresses suitable for the performance of those duties.

The pretty calico, or delicate muslin morning dress, in which a lady would preside at the summer breakfast table ; or the alpaca, or French flannel wrapper, which look so comfortable on a winter's morning, might present anything but an attractive appearance after having been worn while cooking the breakfast. It is true one may, by aid of good luck, a big apron, and rolled-up sleeves, escape soiling the dress ; but the bottom of a spider that has just been lifted from the fire is apt to be black, and if, in moving it about, it comes in contact with the gown, the condition of the latter is not improved. Besides, tired hands are not always steady in their motions, and a coffee-pot may tip, or a gravy-boat may incline from a safe level with results disastrous. So it is safer, if one is occasionally obliged to play cook, to have two or three cooking-dresses. These should be of dark, and closely-figured calico—*not,* as the oft-quoted "old-woman" said of the delft-tea-set, that it may "not show dirt" but that iron rust, fatal to all light calicoes,—coming from no one knows where,—or equally fatal fruit stains—unremovable save by acids quite likely to remove bits of the fabric at the same time,—may not render it old and soiled-looking on the first day of its use. In fashion these cooking or housemaid dresses should be as simple as possible ; flounces, tucks, folds or ruffles are all equally unendurable.

The usual morning dress admits of some ornamentation, but excess should be guarded against ; much trimming is not "in keeping," either on the gown, or the apron, which old-fashioned dress-protector will never be despised by neat women ; on the contrary they will

always endeavor to be fully supplied with an abundance of them.

Every lady who lives in the country is, or should be, something of a gardener. For this employment she will need a special costume, and nothing is so comfortable and convenient as a dress of light woolen material, made with full trousers, loose waist, and skirt reaching a little below the knee, like the costumes worn in classes for calisthenics. The same style of dress is most appropriate for berrying expeditions and mountain-climbing, and for boating and fishing excursions.

But home duties and enjoyments do not form the sum of life's employments for all women, and in the lives of many they are supplanted by occupations more nearly resembling those of their fathers and brothers. Women thus situated will need regular business suits. These should be of strong, serviceable material, quiet in color and but slightly trimmed. Shabby finery—always detestable—is never more so than on the person of a self-supporting woman. But we do not necessarily mean that a dress of fine material may not be so remodelled as to be suitable for a business dress. If of dark color, neatly kept, and all expensive or "fussy" trimmings removed, a gown that has served its time as a "best dress," may be very becoming and suitable for daily use; or light colored all-wool materials may be dyed for this purpose. What we object to, is that when a dinner or an evening dress has become *passée*, its owner should don it "about house," or in her school-room, her office, her studio, or her shop, without fitting it for its new use. For, besides that the long skirt will speedily get frayed and soiled, and the flounces and ruchings, once so pretty, must soon share the same fate, and that the

finery is now as out of date, as in its new surroundings it is out of taste, it is a very wasteful way. The dress re-made would last twice as long, and the trimmings, if of real lace, or handsome passementerie, or fringe, or velvet, might serve for another nice dress instead of being worn out in a service for which they are not adapted.

An old black silk, neatly remodelled, forms, perhaps, the most useful of all business dresses during cool weather. Next best are dark-colored silks, then the ever ready, long-suffering, black alpaca ; or, for very cold weather, a dress of dark, fine English flannel or waterproof. For business use, in weather too warm for silks, we can recommend colored cambrics or linens, but only such as are so plainly made and trimmed that any Bridget can wash and iron them ; for no one can enjoy wearing a dress that will show the slightest spot or stain, when it cannot be made up without calling into requisition the services of a French laundress and incurring an expense of nearly one-third its first cost.

In addition to business suits, one always needs one or two dresses that will answer for calls, for church, and for small evening gatherings.

We know we are shocking the notions of many when we say but one or two of these, for is it not considered essential that one shall never, or at least rarely, appear twice in the same dress, upon even the most informal occasions? This may be. There are a great many foolish fancies in our world, and surely this is not least among them. But we are glad to know that there is a very large class who recognize that they are of more consequence than their dress, and that if the latter is in good taste, not too far past the style,

and in good preservation, it will bear being viewed many times in different or the same places.

Among indispensable things we must of course number an abundant supply of collars, and cuffs, or undersleeves, of styles suitable to be worn with the various costumes. In general a set of these should not cost more than the price of one yard of the material of the dress with which it is intended to be worn, though there are exceptions where the dress-fabric, though not expensive, is so fine in texture that it will not be put out of countenance even by costly lace.

Of pocket handkerchiefs one will need many of the commoner sorts, a few fine, and one or two for "dress occasions."

Of well-chosen neck-ties, sashes, and head-dresses, or ribbons, but a small number will be needed at one time, and Fashion, which changes so incessantly in all things, is especially fickle in these small articles.

Of hats or bonnets, one suitable to wear with the "best dress," and another to accompany the business suits, are all that are essential for each season of six months. Neither of these should be of more than one quarter the cost of the material of the gown with which each will be most worn, and very frequently need not reach an eighth, but this will depend much upon the taste and ingenuity of the maker.

A good supply of gloves is also requisite, but it is not essential that they should all be of French kid. Gloves are frequently a disproportionate item of expense with those who think no cheaper glove than kid will answer the purpose, even when engaged in ordinary business pursuits, as these are very easily soiled. It

should be remembered that the only essential point —for any excepting dress occasions—is, that the hands be protected from soil, or sun, by neat-fitting and well-kept gloves, whether of Lisle thread, silk, dog-skin, or kid.

The same thing is true of shoes and boots. While it is necessary that they be whole, and of good color and fit, it is not important that they be of the latest fashion or most costly material.

In addition to the white skirts which are included under the head of underclothes, a thick and dark-colored skirt will be essential for winter use, and one of lighter material and shade for summer wear ; unless one desires to employ a special laundress, and even then not be able to present an example of perfect neatness.

Among things that may be considered indispensable, we may include two warm and serviceable winter cloaks—one suitable to wear when calling, attending concerts, lectures, etc., and the other intended to be worn with the business dresses. Then there is the ugly, but never-to-be-despised waterproof, for wet-weather walks, and a soft, warm, shawl or wrap, for the sunny, but cool, days of spring or fall. In addition to these, it is desirable to possess a lace shawl for day-time wear in summer, and indoor evening use in winter.

In the matter of travelling dresses, we cannot do better than to quote the hints given by Miss Trafton, in her "American Girl Abroad," in regard to an outfit for the voyage across the Atlantic, and subsequent trip through Europe. The advice is equally applicable to long or short trips in our own country. None but in-

experienced travellers are ever seen in the perfectly fresh dresses made purposely for the trip, which is to them a grand event, demanding special and extensive preparations. And no woman of taste will ever appear in cars, or in stage, on steamer or steamboat, or at wayside inn, clad in the laces and velvets appropriate only for the drawing-room or the concert-hall.

Miss Trafton says, "It is as well to start with but one dress besides the one you wear on the steamer. These two dresses may be anything you chance to have; a black alpaca, or half-worn black silk is very serviceable. When you reach Paris," (or any large town on the route you take, whether in this country or in Europe,) circumstances and the season will govern your purchases; and this same silk or alpaca dress will be almost a necessity for constant railway journeys, rainy-day sight-seeing, etc. A little care and brushing, fresh linen, and a pretty neck-tie will make it presentable—if not more—at any hotel dinner-table." . . . . "Take as many wraps as you please, and then you will wish you had one more. A large shawl, or, better still, a carriage robe, is indispensable. In your valise you will have—in addition to two entire changes of underclothes—warm flannels, thick gloves or mittens, as pretty a hood as you choose"—for steamer use or night travel—"a pair of comfortable slippers, quantities of merino stockings, and a double gown or woolen wrapper in which you may sleep," whether on an ocean steamer, or on dry mountain heights, where blankets are not apt to be as plenty as the supply of fresh air is abundant. An umbrella, rubbers, and *small* work-box, containing needles, thread, scissors, etc., etc., complete this list of travelling essentials.

The woolen wrapper spoken of above will not only be found useful when travelling ; it is an essential part of every woman's wardrobe, for all are called at times to fill the chair of the convalescent, or that of the wearied night-watcher, and in both cases there is nothing so comfortable, though in very warm weather a calico "double gown" may take its place.

CHAPTER IV.

HINTS ABOUT COLOR AND FORM.

If we could imagine a world where was light, but no color, how dreary and desolate would it appear to us! A world in mourning.

Yet there are persons, with good eyesight, so destitute of what phrenologists call the organ of color, that they are afflicted with "color-blindness." This is not always entire (its victims being sometimes able to distinguish yellow and blue), but so nearly so that they lose all the beautiful effects of color, both in nature and in art. To them there is no variation in the tints of a landscape, save the degrees of light and shade; and their ideas of the becoming and tasteful in dress are limited to form and fashion.

To this blindness—much more general than is commonly supposed—are probably due many of the tasteless combinations in dress which constantly offend the eyes of those sensitive to color; while others are owing to a lack of education in this particular, or to carelessness.

"The eye," for form and proportion has, in general, received more cultivation, the daily exigencies of life calling more imperatively for its exercise; but often it is only applied to the merely useful, leaving the beautiful out of view.

Of course there are higher uses for the faculties called Color and Form, than that of dress, if this is considered simply as a matter of vanity. But this it should *never* be. A love of the beautiful, for its own sake, will require us to pay attention to it, in costume, as in other things; though it will not demand that we study dress as a fine art. That would make of it a pursuit too engrossing for a life so short, and so full of earnestness and purpose as ours should be.

In regard to color and form, we can offer only hints, but such as we hope will assist those who desire to dress becomingly, without devoting to the subject time and thought which should be directed elsewhere.

Every child is taught that "there are but three primitive colors—red, blue, and yellow; that compounded in various proportions, either in twos, or all three together, these three colors produce every hue in nature, and in art; every tint that is physically possible. First, when combined in twos, they produce the three secondary colors—that is to say, blue and red make purple or violet; yellow and red, orange; blue and yellow, green. The greys and browns, again, are compounds of all three of the primary colors, in unequal and varying proportions.

"*Complementary colors* are the colors or color which, with any color or colors mentioned, make up the three primary colors, which constitute white light. Thus, if the given color be a primitive, its complementary is composed of the other two primitive colors; *e. g.*, the complementary of blue is orange, compounded of red and yellow. Again, if the given color be a secondary, its complementary is the remaining primitive color.

Thus, the complementary of green—compounded of blue and yellow—is red.

"*Contrast* of color is either simple or compound. Each of the primitive colors forms a simple contrast to the other two. Thus, blue forms a simple contrast to red and yellow. But if red and yellow be mixed together, the complementary color will be produced ; viz., orange, which is the most powerful contrast that can be made to blue."

But this slight, and merely verbal knowledge of the first principles of color, will not help us to attain harmony, or proper contrasts in dress, unless the eye be cultivated by observation of the effects produced by certain combinations of color, both in nature and in art. Thus, orange and blue, though in such decided and beautiful contrast in their proper place, would form a sufficiently grotesque looking head-dress for maid or matron, blonde or brunette ; while red and yellow, so effective in upholstery—at least those shades which have received the more euphonious names of crimson and gold—are, in combination, abandoned in dress to the British army, to the Indian and the African.

It is universally understood that the same tints cannot be worn by brunettes and blondes, but it is popularly supposed that there are certain complexions "so perfect that they can wear any color." This, like most popular notions, has a measure of truth in it ; that is, there are some complexions so clear, and so nicely balanced between the extremes, that they can wear certain *shades* of the more decided colors appropriate for the dark or the fair, but they can wear the positive colors of neither. For instance, while maize-color is very becoming to a clear, gipsy-like complexion, a deli-

cate buff is the nearest approach to it which should be adopted by the beauty who is neither dark nor fair; and while she may wear a bright and decided blue, she should not venture upon the pale shades of that color, so charming for her golden-haired sister.

The colors of the dress should always harmonize with the complexion, as this harmonizes with eyes and hair. An artist would not paint the warm hues of an Italian sky above a frowning scene of desolate glacier or iceberg, nor hang the dull clouds of a December evening over the vivid verdure of the tropics; so, in the lesser art of dress, the *tone* of person and attire should not be at variance. Who can imagine Cleopatra arrayed in the cool tints in which Hypatia looked so grandly beautiful? Or where would have been the pure charm of the latter's presence if she had decked herself in the glowing hues of Cleopatra's wardrobe?

The vivid, warm brunette, must wear colors like herself. Cool neutrality should be as foreign to her dress as it is to her person and character. To her nearly all of the dark, but bright shades, of red, yellow, and blue, are suitable; so are *warm* browns, and white—if "picked out" with some one of the bright colors she affects; and black, if not worn in solid mass as in deep mourning, but relieved with abundance of white, or with bright colors, is also becoming.

As years increase upon the brunette she will be forced to retire mainly to the warm shades of brown, and to black and white, for with age she loses her vividness of coloring; and the bright hues which enhanced her charms in youth, may now increase the appearance of sallowness. But let her never adopt the *cold* tints

at any period of her life. In youth they are incongruous, in age they are ghastly.

For the pure blonde, with golden hair, blue eyes and fairest skin, there is a more limited choice of color, and a wider of tints. That is, of the primitive colors, blue —and that must not be dark—is the only one she can wear ; but the endless delicate shades of purple, green, lilac, lavender, drab, and grey, afford her a wide range. She may also indulge in very delicate (not faded) pink, but let her beware lest it have any suspicion of redness ; just as she must be careful lest the green she chooses should have no perceptible tinge of yellow.

But even the shades of these colors which she can wear in youth must be abandoned in age. Blue can be retained longer, but after fifty it is safest to trust only to the cool neutral tints affected by the "Friends," and to the ever unobjectionable black and white.

In speaking of what brunettes and blondes may wear, we have had reference to those whose complexions are good of their kind ; but there are many who, from ill health, or untimely exposures in uncongenial climates, have acquired complexions that range through all the gradations of sallowness and *pimpledness* from the simply not good, to the positively bad.

While such persons can wear in general the same colors that they would affect if their complexions were perfect of their kind, the shades should be much softened in tone. The bright scarlet becoming to the brunette, through whose clear cheeks a healthy color comes and goes, must—when years or illness have altered the complexion—be changed to a softer and less distinct shade; and maize-color must be abandoned altogether.

And so, the blonde whose cheeks have lost their first loveliness of hue, must wear her blues and pinks of milder tints than she would once have preferred. While those who have badly "pimpled" skins, whether dark or light, should never wear solid colors very near the face. The flowers in their bonnets should be small and mixed, the ribbons should be shaded, and the dresses of fine striped checks, or plaids, or small mixed figures. These, by giving a slightly broken appearance to the whole costume, and avoiding the bad effect of a strong contrast between the mottled condition of the skin and a plain body of color in the dress, will always soften the defect, and sometimes render it almost invisible.

But as a means of making the already beautiful seem more so, and rendering the ugly less so, there is nothing—after a good selection of colors—that will equal the effect of soft, fine lace, worn about face, neck, and hands. This may be "real lace," worth more than its weight in gold ; or it may be simple "illusion," light as vanity, and as cheap. Its properties are the same. Black laces do not possess them in as great a degree as the white, but a mixture of the two is sometimes very desirable, especially in the case of brunettes whose hair has begun to silver.

Black and white, we are often told, can be worn by any one. This is true ; yet there are degrees of becomingness even here. We have yet to see the person to whom thick, dead black, unrelieved by a glimpse of white about throat and wrists, is becoming. Yet we often hear it remarked, and probably with truth, that "Mrs. So-and-so looks better in her deep mourning than she was ever known to do before." In such instances we are almost sure to find that Mrs. So-and-so

is a woman of poor taste, one of the sort who will wear orange and yellow, or blue and purple, or scarlet and crimson together, or all six at once, and admire the effect. Of course in such a case even the dead black is an improvement. Semi-transparent black, relieved with white lace about throat and wrists, and enlivened by a becoming bow at the throat, is always in good taste.

So are thin, white muslins, or any semi-transparent white material, whether with or without the addition of touches of color. But opaque white materials as piqué, alpaca, or silk, are trying to all complexions. None but the clearest, whether brunettes or blondes, should attempt to wear them.

It is a common error that persons with very pale complexions should wear pink, or some one of the many shades of red, to impart color. The real effect is quite the reverse ; the different shades cast corresponding shades of yellow, and from simple pallor the complexion is changed to a decidedly sallow hue. Yellow should also be avoided by those whose cheeks are destitute of natural roses, as it casts a blue reflection, and gives to the face it surrounds, a ghastly look. Blue, on the contrary, casts a pink light, and in some one of its many dark shades for brunettes, and light shades for blondes, is the prettiest of the primitive, as green is of the secondary colors, for pale and clear complexions.

From this it must not be inferred that pink is a suitable color for those with unnaturally red faces. The yellow reflection it casts is not strong enough to materially affect them, and the contrast of pink and fiery red is anything but agreeable to the eye.

It should be fully understood that at all ages, and with any complexion, many colors at one time are to be avoided. As a rule, two colors are enough for one costume, though several shades of the same color are admissible, if they are properly blended together. Thus, a pale blue head-ribbon, worn with a dark blue necktie, would be in bad taste ; while combined in each, the shades might be so blended that the effect would be pleasing.

The trimmings of a dress should be either of the same shade as itself, or a little darker, or of black. Black trimmed with white, or with some color, is the sole exception to this rule, and even in this case the effect is too striking to please for any length of time. Contrasted trimmings, like appropriate shades of blue, or rose color, upon a delicate shade of drab or grey, are often effective, but should not be adopted for any but house dresses.

In trimming a dress with a darker shade of its own color, care ehould be taken that the difference of tint be not too marked. In browns and greys the difference may be more decided, but with blues, greens, etc., great care should be exercised. In these the shades of the trimming and of the dress should never be more than two degrees, and it is better if they are but one degree apart. When a dress of one of the primary or secondary colors is thus shaded in the trimming, the bows for hair and neck should exactly match the several shades of the dress, or be of black or white lace.

If the dress is one of the neutral tints—those formed by a mixture of all three of the primitives—the ribbons may be of any prettily contrasting tint that is brighter than the dress. Thus, blue or pink forms a pretty con-

trast for drab or grey ; but the blue or the pink must be bright and clear : the first must not be *purplish*, nor the second *reddish*.

In selecting the two shades, or colors, for a costume, care should be taken that the larger portion be of the quieter tint. Thus, a dress of dark blue is relieved by a neck-tie of delicate pink ; but a pink dress would be ruined by pinning a blue bow at the throat. Or, a dress of violet color—almost the only dark hue becoming to a blonde—would be enlivened by a throat knot of the *creamy* tint we find in the "Souvenir de Malmaison" rose ; but a gown of the latter shade worn with violet bows would disfigure Venus herself.

It should be borne in mind that a color should never be worn simply because it is pretty in itself. One is often tempted in these days of "lovely new shades"—to buy without reference to becomingness. It is so difficult to imagine that the mauve so pretty in the shop, may give to the dark or thick complexioned wearer, the unenticing hue of a thunder-cloud ; or, that the "new shade of pink" requires to be worn only near a fresh, young face.

In saying that, as a rule, more than two colors in one costume were to be avoided, we did not mean that the flowers in a bonnet, hat, or head-dress must be of one of these colors, though they should be such as will contrast pleasantly. Neither did we mean that each costume should have its own set of jewelry ; though it would be in bad taste to wear corals with a pink dress, or turquoise ornaments on one of dark blue, or of purple. But with the exceptions of flowers or jewelry, all the minor accessories of dress—such as gloves, parasol and fan—if not of black or white, should be of

one of the two colors that form the costume. If this is not practicable, these articles should be of that neutral tint that agrees best with the whole.

Gaily colored wraps are sometimes very effective if worn over black or white, or one of the neutral tints, but should rarely be ventured over a dress of one of the primary or secondary colors: a failure in such a case would be too glaring.

In regard to *form*, Fashion—proverbially careless of the beautiful—has so much of her own fitful way, that it seems like a Partingtonian attempt at staying the waves of the sea, to say a word in defence of Nature's models. Yet useless as it appears we will venture a few hints about the ways in which we may best approach those models without offence to Nature's sensitive rival.

A very tall woman should avoid high heels, high hats, striped dresses, and closely confined hair. If slender she may indulge in as much flouncing, and puffing, and ruching, as Fashion requires, or her own sense of what is fitting will permit. In the street she may wear ample shawls—heavy or light, as she chooses—or if her figure is well made she may wear the tight-fitting basque or polonaise, always providing it is cut as long and as full-skirted as the style will admit; but she will *never* wear a short sacque.

A very stout woman, even though tall, will eschew all trimming excepting lace or ribbons, or material that may be laid on plain, or in flat plaits, or gathered with but little fullness: she will never wear the close fitting basque or polonaise and will always—when her occupations will permit—whether in-doors or out, wear some kind of light and soft, but opaque, shawl or wrap. In fact a half fitting basque or sacque, or a light drapery,

is essential to any woman who is disproportionately fleshy, whether she be tall or short ; though in the latter case the folds of the mantle should not be too ample.

Persons of this style of figure are frequently too conscious of the defect, and, thinking to render it less prominent, will wear only clothes of the tightest fit. But the contrary should be their course ; for though anything airy and fluttering would be out of taste, the simple drapery of a shawl or wrap, or best of all, the half fitting sacque, by shading the outlines, and preventing observers from discerning the exact contour, will impart grace to a figure that might otherwise seem awkward and unwieldy.

White, or very light colors, should never be worn by women who are too fleshy, they so greatly increase the apparent size : nor should very narrow stripes, for these, while they increase the effect of height, also add to that of breadth. Large plaids are inadmissible, though small checks and plaids are sometimes becoming. Bright colors, even if dark, should be avoided as too noticeable ; and so should heavy thick materials, as those which require a good deal of starch. Black, or nearly black, grenadines, alpacas, cashmeres, and soft lustreless silks, are the most becoming dress goods for these figures. Hoops—when in fashion—should be worn no larger than is necessary to fully hide the outlines of the form ; and paniers should never be worn by very stout women, whatever the fashion may be. They should also avoid all puffings and flouncings, excepting on the lower part of the dress skirt, being especially shy of them about the hips.

Women who are both short and slight, can best wear close fitting garments, and a good deal of trimming if

not of a heavy kind. In fact nothing about them should be heavy: from the bonnet to the shoe, all should be light in texture and in fashion, and frequently in color. And, whatever the prevailing style may be, their garments should never be too large, giving the impression that they are wearing clothes not made for them. Little women can rarely carry to advantage any shawl heavier than one of lace, and should also forever abjure big bows, big sashes, big flowers, big hoops, big paniers, and more hair than belongs to them by right of nature.

The woman who is tall and slender, may have a stately elegance of figure, or be angular and stiff; one who is tall and fleshy may have a commanding presence, or be ponderously awkward; and one who is short and stout may move herself with a genial, motherly grace, or with an unwieldy waddle; while one who is short and slight, may have a twitching, overloaded air, or a light, graceful motion; each result depending very much upon the style of dress, and the amount of comfort it secures to the wearer. Discomfort is the death of ease under all circumstances; and ease of manner and carriage is the first essential to grace.

In regard to a gradual change in the colors, we must wear as age creeps over us, we have already spoken; but perhaps it will not be amiss to repeat the remark of "Kitty Trevylan's" sprightly cousin:

"When you are forty-five, for pity's sake recognize the fact!"

Not by a neglect of dress, a hopeless and careless settling down into a slovenly old age; nor by a sombre dullness of coloring, and a severe destitution of trimming, but by adopting that pleasantest of all tones—

after the first, bright morning hours of life have passed —a subdued cheerfulness, which is best produced by black and white, and by warm browns, and cool greys, and drabs. To these we all must, or should, come at last; though by reason of a remarkable freshness of complexion, some are able to postpone the day longer than most.

As a rule the dress material we use should increase in richness as it decreases in brightness, and the costume becomes more simple in fashion. A woman who has passed the boundary line of the fifties, sacrifices her dignity, without gaining in grace or elegance, by conforming to every passing whim of "the *mode*," and a dress of rich Lyon's silk, made and trimmed simply, is in better taste, though in a style antedating the present by several years, than would be one of poorer fabric, cut, and *fussed* into the last agony of the day.

Lace is beautiful and becoming at all ages, but it is essential to the dress of every woman over forty years of age who desires to dress becomingly. Falls or ruches of fine lace do so much to soften and shade roughnesses of complexion, and harshness of outline.

Of course no woman who respects herself, and has any appreciation of the beautiful and fitting, will dye her hair. It is far better that snowy locks should crown a young and fair face, than that one where "bloat" and pimples, or wrinkles and sallowness, contend for the mastery, should be rendered painfully grotesque by the harsh contrast with stiffened puffs or bands of shiny brown, or jetty black hair. In fact, grey hair is a wonderful softener of the defective complexions which often accompany age, and should be cherished, rather than shunned.

From the days of Homer to those of Longfellow, hair has been considered by all persons of taste as the "glory of a woman," her "crown of beauty." But Fashion—tasteless goddess of caprice—has meddled and marred more with this than with any other one thing. Is it not about time that each should begin to study what style of hair-dressing is most becoming to her face, and to adopt it? Declaring that she will *not* be Japanesed unless that style chances to suit her features, and that she will *not* wear three or four pounds more of hair than nature intended any one woman to possess.

Why should the hair of blonde and brunette, the tall and the short, the stout and the thin, the sharp-faced and the thin-faced, the regular featured and the snub-nosed, the old and the young, the beautiful and the ugly, be drawn tightly back, or raised over cushions, or puffed into wings, or tied in bags, or hung in braids, or wound in coils, or tormented into corkscrew curls, or crimped, or laid preternaturally smooth with "bandolines" and pomades, or allowed to swing like a horse's mane, or be bound like a wet towel about the head; or built into a pyramid, or rounded into a cannon ball, all as by one impulse? What business has Fashion to meddle with the hair? And why should a woman with a spark of individuality—to say nothing of taste—submit for one moment to Fashion's senseless and arbitrary decrees, in a matter upon which depends so much of the pleasure she can give to the eyes of others?

We do not "pause for a reply"—not expecting any—but pause in indignation at the cowardice that has so long permitted woman to be shorn of one of her chief beauties.

Lucky is it for us that Fashion can't meddle much with

our eyes! If she could, she would have had them turned inside out, or set in the middle of the forehead, or the sides of the nose, long ago.

CHAPTER V.

ESTIMATES OF COST.

Why will not women keep accounts?

Not once, nor twice, but more than one hundred times have we asked this question, since we began to collect from our friends, and the friends of our friends, the material for this chapter. We had supposed that it would be, comparatively, an easy matter to gather such material, for we did not propose to extend our inquiries into the regions where Fashion and Profusion reign, and we imagined that women to whom life presented more important objects, would, at least, be sufficiently methodical and business-like to keep a record of their personal expenditures. But, no, whatever may be the cause, we find that a woman who keeps a daily record of her expenses is a phenomenon, even among self-supporting women, who we should suppose would naturally feel the utility, even the necessity, of the practice.

It has, therefore, been with difficulty that we have obtained the following varied tables of the yearly cost of the dress of ladies moving in those select but comparatively quiet circles, where mind, morals, and manners are considered of higher value than mere monied wealth.

These tables represent very effective results, and serve to prove our repeated assertions that a lady's wardrobe need not entail the extravagant outlay too often imagined essential, in order to enable its owner to be thoroughly well-dressed.

We commence our tables of annual expense with the one smallest in amount, which is given by a middle-aged married lady occupying a business position in New York city. It presents only the average annual cost of her dress—$100—without entering upon details which would have been desirable. This amount does not include the cost of making any portion of the wardrobe.

Our first detailed table is that of a self-supporting young unmarried lady, residing six months of the year in a large city, who is her own milliner, dress-maker, and plain sempstress.

Dress material	$44.50
" trimming and linings	13.85
Shoes	9.75
Gloves	6.25
Millinery	12.81
Lingerie	10.00
Hosiery and flannels	13.00
Cuffs, collars and handkerchiefs	7.32
Neck-ties, etc.	6.00
Sundries	7.00
Total for one year	$130.48

The second table is that of a young unmarried lady, residing during most of the year in a quiet, country place. This does not include cost of making any portion of the wardrobe.

Dress material	$61.40
" trimmings and linings	17.40

Shoes	15.25
Gloves	9.30
Millinery	10.00
Lingerie	8.00
Hosiery and flannels	12.00
Cuffs, collars and handkerchiefs	3.00
Neck-ties, etc.	4.00
Sundries	10.00
Total for one year	$150.35

The third table is that of a young lady living in the country nine months of the year, passing three months in the city. This includes but a small portion of the cost of dress making, and we find no mention of hosiery or flannels.

Dress material	$76.42
" trimming	27.79
" making	5.00
Millinery	15.75
Shoes	14.50
Lingerie	8.00
Gloves	10.00
Sundries	28.00
Total for one year	$185.46

The fourth table, which covers *two years*, is furnished by a young married lady with children, residing in the country, a very short distance out of New York city.

Dress material, trimming and making	$212.00
Lingerie	22.00
Corsets and covers	6.00
Hosiery and flannels	10.00
Balmoral skirts	15.00
Shoes	25.00
Gloves	20.00

Collars, cuffs and hankerchiefs	10.00
Millinery	40.00
Sundries	15.00
Total for two years	$375.00

Our fifth table is that of a young unmarried lady, living in a large city, and doing most of her own sewing.

Dress material	$64.10
" making	13.50
" trimming	14.00
Shoes	28.00
Millinery	22.00
Lingerie and hosiery	40.00
Gloves—nine pairs	18.00
Sundries	10.00
Total for one year	$209.60

The sixth table we are able to furnish is that of a young lady occupying an editorial position on a prominent weekly, and living ten months of the year in New York city. It includes cost of making.

Dress material, trimming and making	$105.00
Lingerie	20.00
Hosiery and flannel	16.00
Balmoral skirts	7.00
Corsets, hoops, etc.	13.00
Shoes	20.00
Gloves	12.00
Collars, cuffs and handkerchiefs	8.00
Ribbons, neck-ties, etc.	6.00
Millinery	20.00
Sundries	10.00
Total for one year	$237.00

The seventh table is given us by a young unmarried

lady residing in a large city, and holding a business position.

Dress material, making and trimming	$140.00
Shoes	40.00
Millinery	15.00
Lingerie and hosiery	20.00
Ribbons, etc.	10.00
Collars, cuffs and handkerchiefs	10.00
Gloves	20.00
Total for one year	$255.00

Our eighth table of expenditure is that of a married lady, with children, keeping house in the city eight months in the year, living on a fixed income.

Dress material, including cloaks, etc.	$106.35
" trimming	56.00
" making	34.00
Millinery	32.22
Shoes	13.00
Lingerie	15.50
Gloves	8.00
Sundries	47.00
Expense for average year	$312.07

The ninth table is furnished by a young married lady, with a small, independent income, living in a large city. As this lady does much of her own sewing, but little of the cost of making is included below.

Dress material	$162.50
" trimming	30.50
" making	18.00
Shoes	24.00
Millinery	36.00
Lingerie	20.00
Gloves	13.50

Collars, cuffs and handkerchiefs	8.00
Balmoral	5.00
Sundries	18.00
Total for one year	$335.60

The tenth estimate is that of a married lady with children, keeping house for nine months of the year in a large city.

Dress material	$170.00
" making	87.00
" trimming	99.00
Millinery	20.00
Shoes	12.00
Lingerie	9.00
Gloves	12.00
Sundries	20.00
Total for one year	$429.00

The eleventh statement is that of a young married lady, keeping house in a large city, and not obliged to consider very closely the question of economy.

Dress material, trimming and making	$295.00
Shoes	40.00
Millinery	20.00
Lingerie	20.00
Ribbons, etc.	20.00
Collars, cuffs and handkerchiefs	20.00
Gloves	40.00
Total for one year	$455.00

Our twelfth and highest estimate is furnished by a married lady, without children, living in apartments in the city during eight months of the year.

Dress material	$126.00
" trimming	107.00
" making	141.00

Shoes	24.00
Millinery	24.00
Lingerie	20.00
Gloves	7.35
Sundries	30.00
Total for one year	$479.35

It will be observed that in but one of the foregoing estimates is any mention made of cloaks or shawls. This is partly because the fashion of wearing suits has been so prevalent of late, and thus the sacques, etc., are included under the head of dresses ; and in part because as cloaks, and shawls are expected to do duty for years, it would not be right to estimate them under the ordinary annual expenses.

In a few of the estimates the cost of the dresses seems very small, for any one occupying a good position in society, but it should be rememered that many women, by reason of neatness and care, can make a dress last for a great while. With such a woman dresses are apt to accumulate, and she finds it inadvisable to add many gowns to her wardrobe, while she has on hand those which, with a little remodelling, will answer all the ends of dress.

What may be a reasonable amount of money to devote to dress, of course depends upon the amount of one's income, and a woman with a salary of $1,000 per year, from which to pay all expenses, should not desire to vie with one who has $5,000, though the former will be obliged to apply a larger proportion of her slender funds to the purpose than the one who is better endowed with worldly goods ; for — however much we may desire it — it is impossible to dress respectably upon the sum popularly known as "little or nothing."

It is perhaps safe to say that the cost of the clothes we wear should never exceed that of our board, and by dint of neatness, and of careful re-makings, the amount may be a good deal less without compelling the wearer to appear in shabby or tasteless attire.

The wife or daughter of a small farmer, of a tradesman, or of a small salaried clerk, or of a clergyman, would consider as an unjustifiable extravagance the same sum that her self-supporting sister, with a salary of $1,500 for her sole use, would think allowable ; and rightly so, for in the first case, plain but pretty calicoes and muslins, merinos and alpacas, would prove sufficiently handsome dress materials, and the lady herself may very probably be able to make them up neatly. Besides, the number and price of "little things" need not be as great as in the case of a salaried woman, whose daily duties throw her into competition with others. We have known women whose plain, but neat and tasteful dressing, quite fine enough for the position they filled, did not cost them more than $75.00 per year.

Upward on the scale of costliness, we can proceed to an almost limitless height. The number and expense of articles of dress which "must be had," enlarging in exact proportion as a woman's mind and heart grow smaller and more selfish.

Much observation and a good deal of inquiry, have convinced us that with all the great outcry against the extravagance of women in matters of dress, there are comparatively few who do not willingly conform their desires to the limits of their husband's purses, when they once know what those limits are. Still, there are some who, though really unable, are anxious to vie with Mrs. So-and-so, and in order to supply deficiency of

money, they become wasteful, almost wickedly wasteful, of their time and strength, in cutting, making, altering, and "fussing" old dresses to make them look like new. By this labor $250 may be made to go as far as, and produce as good a result as $500, but the saving thus effected may entail a loss of double its amount by ruining, or at least seriously injuring, a woman's mental or physical health; and it would be well if in estimating the cost of such and such a dress, or wardrobe, the sum of side-ache, head-ache, and back-ache, which accompanied and succeeded its preparation, and the amount of the physician's bills, and the loss to her family of the care and time which the mother or daughter should have devoted to it, were reckoned in. For there is in these things, besides the actual suffering, an outlay of money which makes an equal, if not greater, drain on the family purse than would the $500 laid out on the dress in the first place.

But quite often we find that it is not the fault of the wife or daughter that a disproportionate amount of the income of husband or father is expended upon her dress. The masculine half of humanity is not so superior to the allurements of vanity as it would have us believe, and as the improved taste of the age has declared that men of sense shall not indulge in gay attire, they often seek to gratify their innate love of show by urging their wives or daughters to extravagant outlays. For instance, we know a hard-working clerk who receives a salary of $2,000 per year, who has had his life insured as a provision for his wife in case of his decease, boards in small quarters in the fourth story of a fine looking house, spends but a moderate amount on his own dress, and devotes every cent he can spare

from these expenses to his wife's dress. His wife meanwhile getting all the discredit due for extravagance, of which the poor thing would gladly be guiltless.

CHAPTER VI.

HOW AND WHAT TO BUY.

From the heading of this chapter it must not be imagined that in telling how to buy, we mean to give any instructions in regard to the art of making "wonderful bargains." In fact, we have no faith in that sort of thing. It is true that sometimes accidents may throw good bargains in one's way, but the hunter for them is, the course of years, almost sure to pay for damaged, shop worn, or ill-made articles, more money than it would have cost to purchase those of best quality from reliable dealers.

Our ideas of how to buy may be comprised in a few simple sentences.

First, *never buy in haste.* When we rush into a store to buy "some sort" of a dress, or cloak, or shawl, to meet a present emergency, without having previously examined the different styles of goods, and fully considered which will be the best suited to the purpose, we often make purchases which we have reason to regret. The goods which look so pretty when a novelty on the counter, may be very tiresome and inappropriate when looked at day after day in the simple surroundings of home. Or, the quality which seemed good when we did not compare it with others, may prove to be poor. Or, though the articles we have bought may be both

pretty and of good quality, they may not suit our purposes as well as some other might have done that we did not see until after our purchase was made. In short, when we "buy in haste" we may often "repent at our leisure."

But this does not imply that we are to sit four or five hours before a counter, making the clerks pull down quantities of goods for which we have no use, before we can make our decision. On the contrary, we should have determined, before we enter a store, whether we wish a dress of silk or of grenadine, of cashmere or of calico, and then asking only for that variety of goods, proceed to make the wisest selection in our power, with as little trouble as possible to the clerks.

A second point is *not to be persuaded into making purchases contrary to our own opinions.* We each know our own circumstances better than others can do, and though the advice of merchant, clerk, or friend, may be perfectly disinterested, and should not be slightingly regarded, it cannot be implicitly followed. For instance, the salesman may be right when he assures us that an article costing five dollars per yard is handsomer and more durable than one of the same sort at three dollars; but we may know that the latter sum is the highest we can afford to pay, and that for the purpose we have in view the goods at that price will be as valuable as the more expensive quality.

A third point is, that *use, rather than show,* should ever be considered. Thus, in selecting a black silk, while we may admire for its weight, softness, and beautiful finish a very high-priced "Bonnet," suitable only for house and carriage wear, we should not be tempted to buy it in place of a "Ponson" of less price and

slightly less attractive appearance, which will be handsome enough for our indoor uses, and more durable as a walking suit.

What we shall buy, is a question involving much more detail.

In a general way we can say that it is always more economical to purchase material, *good of its kind,* no matter how plain or how cheap that kind may be. If we cannot afford a *good* cashmere at $3.50 to $4.00 per yard, we would do better to purchase some other material, such as all-wool twilled serge, at 75 cents per yard, which, if not quite as wide, nor as rich looking when new, will cut to nearly as good advantage, and will wear much better than a second or third rate cashmere.

Having determined upon the kind of goods we wish to buy, whether silk or serge, cloth or cambric, our next move is to decide which variety of these will be best for our uses.

To assist in this decision we have been at much pains to obtain accurate information in regard to the prices, and the best qualities of different sorts of dry goods. Of course it would be impossible, even if it were desirable, to give anything like a complete priced-list of the different dress goods, for each season brings with it novelties to be tested. But there are some articles which have stood the test of time, and it is such only that a woman of moderate means should purchase ; she cannot afford experiments.

For all seasons and occasions no style of goods has been such a universal favorite as the time-honored black silk. No lady feels that her wardrobe is complete without at least one of these dresses, and yet, as

scarcely anything is more disappointing than a poor article of this kind, the art of selecting the silk becomes a desirable accomplishment.

The most elegant black silk, for house or carriage wear, is the "Antwerp," from one yard to forty inches wide. But as it is the richest, it is naturally the most costly, and varies in price from $9.50 to $12.50 per yard. Its increased width over that of other gros-grain silks is not in proportion to the access of cost, neither does it wear enough better to pay for the difference in price, and only those who can afford extravagance should indulge in this style of silk.

Bonnet's silks—rank as next finest in quality. These are twenty inches wide, and vary in price according to weight and "finish," from $2.75 to $8.00 per yard. The lower priced are too light for much service, while the higher, though beautifully finished, are so heavy and closely woven that they are liable to break, and on account of a tendency to hold dust, should never be used for walking dresses. For the latter purpose the medium qualities, lettered G, H, I, and J, ranging from $4.50 to $5.50 per yard, are the best of the Bonnet silks. But for all purposes where both a handsome and a useful dress is desired, the Ponson silks are the best of all the gros-grains. They are twenty-four inches wide and range in price from $2.25 to $5.50 per yard. The best grades for service being those at $3.50 to $4.50 per yard.

The American black silks, manufactured by the Cheney Bros., twenty-four inches wide, and varying in price from $2.00 to $2.75, are very serviceable—much more so than those at the same price from the French looms, but they lack the latter's fine finish.

For summer wear, taffetas, or high lustre silks, take precedence of gros-grains, as, though equally strong, they are lighter and more easily kept free from dust. The best of these are "the Tiellard" which range from $2.75 to $5.50 per yard, those at $3.00 and $3.50 being as serviceable as the higher priced. Next to these rank the Ponson taffetas, of which there are but two grades, at $2.00 and $2.50 per yard. There are also "half-lustre Ponson's," a useful quality which mingles some of the characteristics of both gros-grains and taffetas, and is sold at $3.00 per yard. All the above are twenty-two inches wide.

Plain-colored silks, twenty-four inches wide, range in price from $2.50 to $6.00 per yard, but, as in the case of the black silks, the highest price is not always the best for use ; the quality sold at $3.00 being recommended as the most serviceable. But it should be remembered that a "new shade" will bring from twenty-five to fifty cents per yard more than established colors in the same grade of silk.

"Lyons taffetas," better known as "summer silks," woven in checks, stripes, and chênés, eighteen inches wide, are all of one grade, but range in price from $1.00 to $1.90 per yard, according to the fashionableness of the style. For instance, the hair-stripe, that a year ago brought $1.75 per yard is now sold for $1.25 ; and the chêné that to-day brings $1.90, in a year or two may probably be offered at from $1.00 to $1.25.

Pongee-silks, only found in light shades, are twenty-seven inches in width, and are sold at $1.00 per yard, for a quality that wrinkles easily, to $1.50 and $2.00 for a better quality, that can be washed like a French calico. But this is not a very high recommendation for silks of

any sort, for though they can be restored to cleanliness, they can never regain their first gloss.

Foulard silks, twenty-seven inches wide, soft, and comparatively durable, are sold at $1.50 per yard. These silks are also recommended as washable, but though not ruined, they are not improved by the process, and they spot so very easily that the light colors are sure to need some renovating process after having been worn even a short time.

Japanese silks—made of silk and linen—range in price from seventy-five cents per yard for a quality which looks well at first, but soon becomes crumpled and shabby-looking, to $1.75, for a grade which is said to do excellent service. They are only eighteen inches wide.

Undressed silks, which come in all colors, and are durable, can be recommended for evening wear. This sort is twenty-two inches wide, and varies in price from $1.00 to $2.00 per yard.

Pim's Irish poplins, resembling gros-grain silk, but softer, twenty-four inches wide, are $2.25 for the best quality. Colored Irish poplins are prettier than black, though the latter bears a strong resemblance to American black silks. The Lyons, or French poplin, twenty inches wide, sold at $1.25 per yard, is liable to shrink if exposed to wet, and is very easily crumpled. It may readily be distinguished from the Irish poplins by the latter fact.

In black and plain colored dress goods for autumn, winter, and spring use, we have a range of prices, from fifty cents per yard for the soft hanging and comparatively serviceable all-wool delaine, to $4.50 per yard, for the finest cashmere, forty-seven inches in width, or

$4.00 for the heavy, but soft and durable, "ladies'-cloth," sixty-four inches wide.

Within this range we find, among the light and cheap goods which have been tested, challies, twenty-four inches wide, which wear well, and are pretty, but crease easily, at seventy-five cents per yard. Twilled-pongees, of about the same width, which wear as well, and do not crease, at eighty-five cents per yard. A silk and wool serge, thirty inches wide, which wears well, but only comes in light shades, at from $1.50 to $1.85 per yard. Pongee poplins, twenty-seven inches wide, which are very durable, but are only found in a few shades, which, in the plain goods, are mixed to produce a changeable effect, as steel-grey and purple, grey and brown, etc., at $1.15 per yard. Another quality of this goods, which looks as well, and is offered at sixty-five cents per yard, crumples so as to become almost useless if worn out of doors in damp weather. Cretonne-cloths, of the same width as all-wool delaines, and much like it, but heavier, and found only in light colors, are sold at seventy-five cents per yard. All wool serge, twenty-seven inches wide, found only in dark colors, brings about the same price.

Merinos—about one yard wide—vary through all colors and degrees of fineness, from ninety cents to $2.00 per yard. Some of the coarser grades will be found as durable as the finer, if not quite as pretty.

Of cashmeres, forty inches wide, those costing $4.50 per yard are better worth buying—if we can afford one at all—than the lower grades which come at all prices, from $1.25 per yard upwards. The qualities sold at $2.50 to $3.00 will last as long as the fashion in which they are at first made, and for persons who do

not care to have dresses "made over," this will be sufficient. But the best quality of all-wool-satine, found in all dark colors, twenty-eight inches wide, which has a fine glossy appearance, and will answer all useful purposes nearly as well as the finest cashmere, is much cheaper, the highest price being $1.75 per yard. A sort called French-satine, offered at $1.15 per yard, comes only in brown and grey, one side being grey, the other brown; this is not very pretty, and becomes rough after being worn a little.

Parisian cloth, twenty-seven inches wide, is a very durable and nice-looking article, especially adapted for walking suits, found in black and all dark colors, which varies in price from seventy-five cents to $1.50 per yard. The difference in price is caused by difference in quality rather than in looks.

Biarritz-cloth is one of the very prettiest of the winter dress goods; warm, soft, and light, found in all the dark colors, and has the important additional recommendation of durability. The width—forty inches—is one that usually cuts to advantage; price $1.50 per yard for best quality.

All-wool reps, which comes in all the dark shades, is a soft and handsome style of goods, thirty-two inches wide, varying in price from 75 cents to $1.75 per yard; the latter grade is said to "wear well."

Silk-faced velours is a heavy and not particularly beautiful article, with a linen back, and, as the name implies, a silk face. It is said to be durable, but is probably less so than most of the varieties we have named. In price it ranges from $1.50 to $2.00 per yard, and is twenty-eight inches wide.

All-wool velours, found in black and all the dark

colors, is one of the best cheap winter goods we have, being twenty-seven inches wide and very durable for its price, which is only fifty cents per yard.

Empress cloths are so well known that they need no recommendation. They are found in black, and all the dark colors, varying in width from twenty-eight to forty inches, and correspondingly in price from sixty cents to $1.25 per yard.

Three sorts of serge, called the imperial, the plain twisted, and the all-wool, thirty inches wide, form strong and useful winter and fall dresses, in all dark colors, varying in price from seventy-five to ninety-five cents per yard ; but they soon become rough, though otherwise durable.

Of heavy cloths, adapted for suits, there are three varieties found in black and in colors.

First, the tricot, one yard and a half wide, and sold at from $2.00 to $2.50 per yard, that at $2.25 being as durable as that at $2.50, but not quite as nicely finished. Tricots are only found in black and a few of the more sober colors.

Second, the ladies' cloths, which are handsomer and more expensive than the tricots, but do not wear any better. They are found in black, in all shades of brown and grey, in a bright scarlet, and in a few dark shades of green, maroon, blue and purple. The two last are very pretty, but apt to fade. The width is the same in all—one and a half yard—but the price varies according to weight, fineness and color, from $1.75 to $4.00 per yard ; those at the former price differing but slightly, if at all, from the finer sorts of colored flannels. The bright colors are twenty-five cents per yard more than the more sober hues.

The third sort of cloth of which suits are sometimes made, is waterproof. This—same width of above—it of both English and American manufacture, and varies in price from $1.25 per yard, for that which is chiefly cotton and does not pay for the making up, to the best English all-wool at $3.50 per yard. A serviceable grade is found at $2.50. None of these cloths make suitable dresses for any but the coldest weather.

Of the heavy dress materials which come only in black, we find, first, bombazine, one yard wide, of both French and English manufacture, the latter being as much better than the former as it is more costly. They vary in price from $1.75 to $3.50 per yard. Second, Henrietta-cloth, or silk-warp cashmere, a very beautiful style of goods, forty inches in width, from $1.50 to $2.50 per yard—the latter grade being proportionately more serviceable than the former. Third, drap-d'été, most worn for light sacques, but handsome and *very* serviceable for suits, forty-eight inches wide and varying in price from $2.25 to $4.00 per yard. That at about $3.00 is a durable quality, but not as fine and handsome as the higher priced. Fourth, barathéa, formerly known as Turin cloth. This is a nice-looking style of goods with wool face and cotton back. The genuine is recommended for its durability, but there are several sorts, all to the uninitiated eye looking much alike, but some not being worth the trouble of making up. They are from fifty to seventy-five cents per yard, and are thirty-eight inches wide. Fifth, is a crêpe-cloth, often used for dresses, but more suitable for light sacques, and for trimming in deep mourning on dresses subject to such severe use that English crape would soon become too shabby. It varies, according to

quality, from forty to seventy-five cents per yard, and is thirty-two inches wide.

We now come to the most universally serviceable of all the woolen materials—the alpacas. Not too fine for every-day business wear, yet always nice looking, easily kept clean, and, if of good quality, exceedingly durable. The best of all the alpacas are the brillantines or Arabian lustre. These range at from 75 cents to $1.50 per yard, but as is the case in some other styles of goods, that at the highest price is not the most serviceable, for what it gains in fineness and gloss it loses in strength. The grades sold at from $1.00 to $1.25 will be found most durable. Next in value to the brillantines, come the demi-lustre alpacas, at from sixty-five cents to $1.25 per yard ; and last and least the mohair lustre at from sixty-five to eighty-five cents per yard. All alpacas are about thirty inches wide.

Black English crape for veils comes in two widths, one yard and a quarter, and one yard ; and of several qualities, from that sold at $4.50 per yard to that at $8.50 ; those at $6.00 and $7.00 being equally serviceable if not quite as heavy as those above these prices. Trimming crapes of the same qualities are found in narrower widths, and vary from $3.00 to $6.00 per yard. Those at $4.50 and $5.00 being sufficiently good for all useful purposes.

In striped woolen dress goods, alike on both sides, we have the pretty and serviceable, all-wool Pongee-poplins, twenty-seven inches wide, at $1.15 and $1.35 per yard. Yak-cloths of the same width, which are durable, but only found in greys and browns, or with black and white stripes, at sixty cents per yard. Of lighter materials we have wash-poplin, an excellent wool and cotton

stuff, twenty-seven inches wide, at thirty-eight cents per yard, and cram, a new material, said to be durable, of the same width as above, at thirty cents per yard.

Of striped worsted goods, not alike on both sides, we find classed as durable, a pongee-poplin, twenty-eight inches wide, at $1.25 per yard ; a pongee-serge—which comes only in grey and black, and grey and brown—same width as above, at $1.50 per yard, and a washable mohair, twenty-two inches wide, at twenty-eight cents per yard.

Of Plaids, now mostly used for children, there are plain and crêpe gloss poplins, thirty-two inches wide, at sixty cents per yard ; a mohair plaid—black and white —thirty-two inches wide, and fifty cents per yard, which washes well ; an all-wool serge, in bright colors, one and a half yards wide, at $1.50 per yard ; and a grenadine poplin, twenty-two inches wide, which comes only in light colors, but it will answer for one seasons' wear, and is only fifteen and eighteen cents per yard. It will not bear washing.

For morning wrappers we find gaily figured all-wool cashmeres, one yard wide, at $1.25 per yard, and robes of the same material sold in patterns of fifteen yards each, forty inches wide, at from $12.00 to $25.00 ; those at the first price are not considered durable.

For summer wrappers, chambretta, a sort of figured barége, one yard wide, comes at forty-five cents per yard. For very cold weather, there are plaid and plain flannels, varying in width from twenty-seven to fifty-four inches, and in price from seventy-five cents to $1.75 per yard. Flannels of the Assobet, Lawrence, and Camden mills are considered the best.

For daily or exceptional use in late spring and early

autumn, and on cool days in summer, from their durability, beauty, and universal adaptability, black grenadines have achieved a high and permanent position among dress goods. There are different sorts of grenadines, some of which, found both in plain black, and striped with colors, are flimsy mixtures of silk, wool and cotton, or silk and cotton, and are not worth the moderate price they cost—from twenty-five cents to $1.00 per yard—to say nothing of the trouble of making, for they "muss" and fade very easily, scarcely lasting half a season even with careful treatment. The varieties which have obtained most favor have been the iron—all-wool, twenty-four inches wide $2.00 per yard, or the same, two yards wide at $6.00 per yard; and the sewing silk, twenty-two inches wide, at $2.50 per yard. This last is almost imperishable, and is always pretty. A flowered black silk grenadine is used for polonaises and over-dresses, with very much the effect of beautiful black lace. This is very strong, is twenty-two inches wide, and varies in price from $2.75 to $3.50 per yard. Another sort—also durable—is of the same width, has round satin spots of various sizes, and costs from $2.25 to $2.50 per yard. A grenadine-barége—silk and wool—twenty-two inches wide, which is finer and less durable than the iron, though quite serviceable, is sold at $1.00 per yard. A coarse sort of cotton and wool, which does not tear easily, though it fades soon, twenty-two inches wide, is sold as low as sixty-five cents per yard.

Nearly all the varieties of plain colored goods we have mentioned are found in plain white as well.

In muslins, organdies, white and colored, and Swiss, with or without white or colored embroidered figures, maintain their old position. The fine French organ-

dies, sixty-eight inches wide, at $1.75 per yard, being considered the very best "laundry goods," among the semi-transparent varieties. Swiss muslin varies in price from that thirty-two inches wide, sold for linings at eighteen cents per yard, to the finest, forty-two inches in width, costing $1.00 per yard.

French nansooks are of two kinds, both forty-eight inches in width, the "heavy," sold at from fifty cents to $1.30 per yard, and the "sheer"—a beautiful sort—at from fifty cents to $1.18 per yard. English nansook, thirty-nine inches wide, varies in proportion to its fineness, from thirty-two cents to $1.10, and English mull—not so popular now as formerly—thirty-four inches wide, at from thirty to seventy-five cents per yard.

Victoria-lawn—the sort most used for suits—forty-two inches wide, varies from eighteen to eighty cents per yard, that at forty cents being a very serviceable quality. A new sort of muslin called French-grenadine, which washes well, and is very pretty for polonaises and evening dresses, is forty-four inches wide, and costs from forty-five to ninety cents per yard.

The well-known piqués, useful for many purposes, but heavy to wear, and the terror of laundresses, are thirty-four inches wide, and vary in price from twenty cents per yard for the poorer quality of plain rib or spot, to $1.75 per yard for the ribbed canton flannel-backed piqué, with an embroidered sprig, nice for the winter dresses of the wee-toddlers whom their doting mammas dislike to see in anything but white.

Oriental check is a very nice white material for morning dresses, which does not lose the pretty satin gloss of its checks or stripes by constant washing, is thirty-inches

wide, and costs from twenty-seven to forty-eight cents per yard.

Tucked white muslins, for children's dresses, or for trimming, are of two kinds, those in which the tucks are stitched, and those in which they are woven. The latter look quite as well, are more durable and cost less, ranging from ninety-five cents to $1.50 per yard, while the stitched are sold at from $1.25 to $2.00 per yard. French revere, woven in alternate stripes of very narrow tucks, and open work like satin stitch, is pretty for yokes and trimmings; it is about thirty inches wide, and sold at from $1.75 to $2.00 per yard.

Among the calicoes, the French, at forty to fifty cents per yard, and the English, twenty-seven inches wide, at twenty and twenty-five cents per yard, are called the best; though American cambrics, thirty-two inches wide, at from twenty to twenty-five cents per yard, are very good and usually prettier than the others. English cretonne is a thick and good variety of this style of goods, twenty-seven inches in width, at twenty-five cents per yard. French batiste is a very pretty, soft-finished cambric, thirty-two inches wide, at thirty-five cents per yard. Chamberies, pretty and washable, but not durable, are about twenty-seven inches wide, and are sold at from ten to eighteen cents per yard.

Scotch ginghams, though not very pretty, and sometimes apt to fade, form perhaps the most serviceable of dresses for ladies when engaged in household occupations, or for children allowed to play, as children should, in the fields, or on the sands, where white, or the prettier and more delicate cambrics, would soon be ruined. These are from twenty-seven to thirty-six inches wide, and cost from thirty to thirty-five cents per yard. Cotton satine

is a remarkably pretty style of cotton goods, in plain colors, with—as the name implies—a satin finish on one side, which is not lost by washing. This costs from thirty to forty-five cents per yard, and is thirty-two inches wide.

Striped and checked percales are one yard wide, sold at from twenty-five to forty-five cents per yard ; these are pretty and good, but not as serviceable as some other varieties of similar price. Striped linens, which are both pretty and strong, are thirty-two inches wide, and sold at from sixty-five cents to $1.00 per yard. They are not, however, very economical fabrics to buy, for they are as easily spoiled by fruit stains and bad washing, as cambrics at but half their price.

From calico to velvet seems an abrupt transition, yet before descending to the underwear, we wish to speak of cloakings, and naturally give the first place to the most elegant, expensive, durable, and always fashionable of the materials. Perhaps, after a low grade of black silk, nothing is more unsatisfactory than a poor quality of velvet ; for any sort is too costly for one of moderate means to afford, unless it will wear long enough to compensate for the first outlay. This the cheap varieties will not do. It is more economical to pay $14.00 per yard for an article that will look well for years, than $11.00 for one that will look brown or threadbare after a season or two.

The most costly style of black cloaking velvet is that known as the "Peerless," which comes in two widths, that of thirty-two inches, which is sold at $20.00 per yard ; and that of twenty-eight inches, at $16.00 per yard. The former does not cut to sufficiently better advantage to pay for the difference in price. The

quality of velvet most highly recommended for service is the Ponson, thirty-two inches wide, $16.00 per yard; and twenty-eight inches wide, costing, in black, $14.00 per yard, and colors, $16.00. The next grade of velvet is the "Colard," that thirty-two inches wide being $16.00 per yard, and that twenty-eight inches broad $13.00 per yard. The "Pelissier," the lightest of the all-silk velvets, comes only of one width—twenty-eight inches—and costs $11.00 per yard.

German velvets, twenty-eight inches wide, with cotton-back, bring from $5.00 to $10.00 per yard. These are never handsome, and soon become worthless.

Velveteen, heavy and undesirable, though often serviceable, ranges from twenty-two to twenty-eight inches in width, and in cost from seventy-five cents to $2.50 per yard.

Whether or not one owns a velvet cloak, one must have a cloak of a material which will be suitable on occasions when velvet would be out of place. For this purpose there are many fancy cloths, but plain, handsome beaver cloth is more durable, both in fashion and fabric. This ranges in price from $5.00 to $6.50, the latter quality being as superior to the others in durability as in finish.

Seal-skin and Astrakan cloaks are handsome, but are so warm that it is almost dangerous to change to one of light cloth or velvet, though they become uncomfortable on many of the mild days which even our winters sometimes bring. These fur cloaks are also very liable to destruction by moths. Cloaks of the genuine seal-skin, and Astrakan furs, cost from $60.00 to $125.00 each, though they are sometimes offered as low as $20.00 the sacque to uninstructed eyes as good as those at

high prices. But on strict inquiry, or examination, it will be found that the skin was not properly cured at first, and is now infested by a very small insect, which commits its ravages on the skin side, where—sheltered by the lining—it may almost honey-comb the skin before the presence of the little foe is suspected; but when once it has secured a habitation it is scarcely to be dislodged, and after a little while it will be found that the gentlest pull is sufficient to tear the fur into jagged strips.

A serviceable material for children's sacques in moderate weather is a white corduroy, which will wash well, at $1.50 per yard, twenty-seven inches wide.

A durable and nice-looking stuff for the linings of cloth cloaks is called farmer's satin, thirty-two inches wide, sold at from eighty-five cents to $1.75 per yard. The medium quality—$1.25 per yard—is thought to be as durable, if not as nicely finished, as the higher priced. For velvets, taffeta, eighteen inches wide, at $1.25 per yard, is the most suitable lining.

Bonnet velvets, eighteen inches wide, cost from $4.50 to $5.50 per yard, the price depending more upon the tint than the quality.

Furs vary so much with fashion that it is impossible to give reliable information about the prices. The finer sorts of mink look nearly as well as sables, are very much less in price, and will do as much service. Siberian squirrel fur is the cheapest of all the real furs, and for ordinary use answers an excellent purpose. Ermine should only be worn in pleasant weather in company with silks and velvets.

In gloves we have not yet been presented with anything better than the Alexandre kids, but they are such

a costly luxury that those with whom economy is an object are often forced to resort to less expensive, and less perfectly fitting gloves of the same materiel, or of silk. Alexandre kids, with but a single button, are sold at from $1.65 to $1.75 per pair; with two buttons, at $2.00, and so on to $3.50 per pair. The *système Jouvin* gloves, are a cheaper sort of kid, of which those with two buttons are sold at $1.00 per pair, but they rarely fit well, and are often of a poor quality of kid. Gloves of English calf-skin, made like kids, which they closely resemble in appearance, are sold at from $1.75 to $2.50 the pair, one of which will outlast three pairs of kids. For cold weather these gloves are much better than kid, but it is necessary to get the former one number larger than the latter, as they do not stretch. One style of calf-skin glove is made with gauntlets, for driving. Dog-skin gloves are another serviceable sort, sold at about the same rates as the calf-skin. In buying dog-skin gloves it is well to get a number smaller than when choosing those of kid, as they stretch a good deal.

Alexandre silk gloves, nice and serviceable, are sold at $1.25 per pair. English Lisle thread at ninety cents per pair. Lace mitts are from seventy-five cents to $4.00 per pair. Fashion, in remanding these for very warm weather, has (for once) done a sensible thing. The grades sold at from $1.00 to $1.50 per pair, are more serviceable than those of higher price, though not so pretty.

Buckskin driving gloves are sold at from $1.25 to $2.00 the pair.

There are cheaper sorts of gloves than any we have mentioned, but they are scarcely worth the trouble of buying, and rarely look even tolerably well.

Laces take an important place in the wardrobe of every woman who desires to dress elegantly. The genuine sorts—those worked by hand—are very expensive, but in the end they are often as cheap as the trimmings which are originally less costly, for they are so durable, both in fashion and in fabric. Many of the woven imitations closely resemble the real laces at first, but after a little wear become shabby, faded, and flimsy-looking. It would be almost impossible to give instructions about how to judge of laces, for it is an art which can only be acquired by practice; but a few hints in regard to the different varieties may be given, and after that the novice must trust to the assistance of some experienced friend, and to the honor of the merchant with whom she deals.

Black trimming-laces are of six sorts, the finest and most costly of which is the Chantilly-point, varying in width from one to eight inches, and in price from $5.00 to $35.00 per yard. Chantilly lace is only adapted for trimming the very richest of dresses, and shows to better advantage on white or colored silks than on black.

The next in point of beauty and expense is the English thread, sometimes called Brussels-point, though it is not as heavy as the lace our grandmothers knew by the latter name. This is very durable and pretty, and varies in cost from $3.50 to $10.00 per yard, according to width and pattern. That about three inches wide, costing $4.00 per yard, forms a very handsome trimming—as good as any one need desire—for velvet, and black, and colored silks, and is a convenient width, useful in many other ways as for bonnets, etc.

Guipure is a heavy and strong lace, suitable for

trimming cashmeres, and dresses of similar material, but not adapted to the most expensive suits of silk and velvet, with which, however, it is frequently used. Guipure varies in price from thirty cents per yard for that one inch in width, to $8.00, for that eight inches wide.

Llama-lace is a strong, fine-wool lace, in pretty patterns, ranging from forty cents to $5.00 per yard, according to width, and adapted to the same uses as guipure, though it is not quite as rich-looking.

Worsted lace is a very heavy sort, adapted to trimming thick cloth dresses, and sold at from fifty cents to $4.00 per yard. This lace also comes in colors, but cannot be recommended.

Spanish lace, though a real, that is, a hand made lace, is coarse and ugly, much inferior to the imitations of thread which are sold at about the same prices—from forty cents to $3.00 per yard.

At present the most popular of the white laces is the well known Valenciennes, varying in price from $1.30 per yard, for a very coarse pattern, one inch wide, to $30.00 for a fine sort three and a half inches wide. But popular as it is, Valenciennes is not the best lace to buy, for besides that it is more readily imitated than the other hand-made laces, it is made of cotton instead of linen, and is therefore less durable.

White English thread laces are cheaper, more durable and prettier than the Valenciennes, and are sold at the same rates as the black thread laces.

The Duchesse lace is a most beautiful sort for trimming the very richest of materials, but is unsuitable with any other; that about five inches wide costing $40.00 per yard.

Point lace, not quite as showy as the Duchesse, but finer, is sold at the same rates; and point-appliqué at a little less, that three inches wide costing but $21.00 per yard. But none of these very high-priced laces should be purchased by any save the *very* rich, not only on account of their own cost, but because they necessitate the purchase of correspondingly costly articles of every sort from head-dress to shoe.

Handkerchiefs of Valenciennes lace vary from $1.50 to $30.00 each; those at $5.00 and $6.00 being quite pretty. Of point lace they range from $6.00 to $200.00.

Valenciennes collars cost from $2.50 to $30.00; those at $5.00 to $10.00 are very nice. Point lace collars vary in fineness with the price, which ranges from $6.00 to $60.00: one at $10.00 is good enough for the "best dress collar" of any reasonable woman, and will last a life time.

Lace shawls are found in every degree of fineness and beauty, from $1500 to $2500 and $3000; those at the latter prices being artistic productions which not seldom cost the eyes, if not the lives, of their patient workers.

The best qualities of Llama lace are sold at $100, and are fine and durable. Chantilly and point lace jackets are sold at from $100 to $1,000 each; and those of Llama lace at from $14.00 to $100, but as these last are articles that may speedily pass out of fashion, it would scarcely be wise to purchase one of the more costly sort, and the lowest grades are too coarse to be desirable.

In stepping back to the less beautiful and expensive, but more essential, articles, we find Balmoral skirts of

different materials are sold from $1.50, for the washable black and white printed canton-flannel, to $3.75 for the striped wash poplin.

White skirts, to be worn under thin walking dresses, are sold at from ninety cents to $4.00 each for the plainly tucked and ruffled, and from $6.00 to $19.00 for the embroidered ; while trained white skirts are sold at from $5.00 to $30.00. Short white muslin underskirts are offered at from $1.00 to $5.00. Drawers at from ninety cents to $7.00. Cotton chemises at from $1.75 to $7.00 each, and linen ones at from $3.75 to $25.00. Night dresses at from $2.00 for those plainly but nicely made, to $65.00 for those elegantly fashioned, and trimmed with real lace.

Corsets bring from seventy-five cents to $20.00 the pair ; the best grades for use being those at from $3.00 to $5.00.

The cheaper grades of all the foregoing articles are generally quite good enough for sensible people to wear.

Of fine linens there are two sorts recommended—Richardson's, and Stewart's family. The first varies in price from forty cents to $1.75 per yard, one yard wide; the latter from thirty-five cents to $1.50. Richardson's at sixty-five, and Stewart's at eighty-five cents per yard, are both good grades for serviceable underwear.

The best muslins for making white skirts, chemises, etc., are Jones' cambrics, from forty-two to forty-five inches wide, and thirty to sixty-five cents per yard ; and French percales, a very nice article, one yard wide, at from thirty to forty cents per yard.

Berlin cord, an old-fashioned material, is again used to make bustles and skirts for those who dislike hoops. It is twenty-eight inches wide at forty cents per yard.

For night-dresses, French percales, mentioned for skirts, and India-twilled long-cloth, both plain and striped, forty inches in width, are excellent. The latter is sold at from twenty-five to sixty-two cents per yard, that at forty-eight cents being a nice quality.

In stockings, as in other things, one may buy plain and useful articles at a moderate price, or finer at more extravagant rates. We may purchase pretty and durable Lisle-thread hose, at from $1.80 to $6.50 per pair; or Balbriggan—strong and good—at from $1.00 to $4.00 per pair—the first grade being nearly, if not quite, as serviceable as the others. Or merinos at from $5.40 to $25.00 per dozen; the best of these for common use are sold at from $10.00 to $12.00 per dozen. Of cotton stockings the "British four-threads" are excellent for ordinary use at $7.50 per dozen.

Of under-flannels there are four sorts. The "gauze" at from $1.00 to $1.75 each; the "paper-gossamer," of medium thickness, at from $2.25 to $2.50 each; the winter "all wool merinos" at from $1.75 to $4.25; and "silk flannels," thin for summer, at $4.75 each, and thick for winter, at from $5.75 to $7.00 each. Drawers are sold to match each of the above at from $1.50 to $8.00 the pair. Perforated buckskin vests cost from $2.00 to $4.00 each, and the drawers are $5.00 per pair.

Ladies' ribbed merino underskirts are sold at $1.75 each; and flannel skirts at from $2.50 to $12.00 each.

Flannels for ladies' and children's underskirts are of many varieties, from the newly introduced and prettily embroidered styles, all of one quality of flannel, but varying in price according to the pattern of the machine-made embroidery, from $1.50 to $4.25 per yard, to the

narrow and nearly all cotton sorts sold at forty cents per yard. For warm and serviceable underskirts the flannel made of cotton and wool, carded, spun and woven together, is the most desirable as it will wash without shrinking. This is known as the Gilbert flannel, is one yard wide and sold at from thirty-five to ninety cents per yard, according to weight and fineness. Shaker-all-wool flannel—one yard wide—sold at from seventy-five to ninety-five cents per yard, is very warm but prone to shrink. The thickest and best winter flannel, when carefully washed, is the Welsh, sold at from ninety-five cents to $2.10 per yard : it is thirty inches wide, exclusive of the broad bands of list which form the selvedges. Swan-skin flannel, all wool, soft, fine and thick, but much disposed to shrink, two and a half yards wide, ranges at from $1.10 to $3.00 per yard. A nice cotton and wool flannel, thin and light for summer use, is sold at fifty-five and sixty-five cents per yard. For infants' use there are two desirable sorts, one from the Gilbert mills, fine, soft, and will bear frequent washing, is one yard wide, and costs from seventy cents to $1.25 per yard ; the other, called the "Gilbert moleskin," as fine as the first but heavier, at from eighty cents to $1.30 per yard. Gilbert's medicated red flannel is highly recommended—by those who have worn it —as being beneficial in rheumatic complaints. It is one yard wide, and sold at from $1.00 to $1.30 per yard.

Canton flannels are of both English and American manufacture ; the latter being, we are sorry to confess, much the poorer quality. The widths are the same, thirty inches and one yard. Bleached English is sold at forty-five and fifty cents per yard ; unbleached

at forty-five cents ; bleached American at twenty-five and thirty cents per yard, and unbleached at fifteen to twenty-five cents.

Though not a showy part of the dress, shoes are expensive and essential. Those of French kid are the handsomest walking shoes in use, and cost from $6.00 per pair for the machine-made, to $7.00 for the plainest hand-made, and as high as $15.00 for the more fancifully finished—those at $7.00 being as serviceable as the more expensive. Morocco shoes—not quite as soft for the feet—are a little stronger than kid, and sold at about the same prices. Those of pebble-goat are not as fine as either kid or morocco, but are the most durable shoes for daily wear, costing $4.50 for the machine-made, and $5.00 for the hand-made. Prunella shoes vary from $4.00 to $6.00 for machine or hand-made, the latter being always considered the most durable. Prunella slippers, without heels, are sold at from $1.00 to $1.50; morocco slippers, without heels, are from $1.50 to $3.00; those at $2.00 being of good quality ; morocco slippers, with heels, cost from $2.00 to $3.00, for the plainer sort, and $4.00 to $4.50 for the much ornamented Marie Antoinette slippers.

The foregoing statements of prices are, of course, subject to many local variations, as well as to fluctuations in gold ; which is now—September, 1872—standing at about $1.15, but the information in regard to price, quality, and durability has been gained from trustworthy sources, and we think will prove reliable and valuable.

CHAPTER VII.

TASTE AND ECONOMY.

We have already explained that in our view the tastefulness of dress does not depend upon the amount of money expended; that attention to the laws of color, form, and fitness are the essentials, and that these laws can be fully considered where comparatively little money is used. But it will not be amiss to say a few words in regard to how economy may be consulted in the choice of materials, the fashion of making, and the manner of wearing.

In regard to a choice of material, we trust our chapter on "How and What to Buy," will give valuable assistance, especially to those ladies who, having but a limited time to devote to shopping, desire to have their minds in some degree determined upon what to purchase before entering a store, where they may be confused by the novelty and variety of the articles presented, and thus induced to buy those which, from inferiority of manufacture, or from unsuitableness to the situation and surroundings of the wearer, will prove extravagant.

Goods of startling patterns, or those which are "the rage," even though very pretty, are not safe purchases

for persons with limited purses. The articles are marked, and as such, the eye of the wearer and of beholders soon becomes wearied, and the dress, though still in good condition, can only be worn under protest, or be laid aside for the next beggar. Plain goods are never out of date, and narrow perpendicular stripes, tiny checks, or "chênés," or small figures, though not always fashionable, are rarely out of taste. But the "robe," or "pattern dresses," however beautiful when in vogue, are *outré* when not "the rage" of the moment; "bayadere" or diagonal stripes, barely endurable when Fashion gives them her sweetest smiles, are positively ugly when viewed in the shade of her frown; and the exaggerated flowers twined about miniature towers, or decorating the brows of Liliputian Cupids, which excite smiles even in their palmiest days, will become grotesque to an unendurable degree when Fashion shall have decreed their doom.

Those ideas of taste which are formed simply upon "what is worn this season," are always unreliable, and are apt to lead those who suffer themselves to be so guided, into many needless expenses; while true taste, based upon the unvarying laws of color, form, and fitness, will preserve its followers from extravagance, and from that *whimsicalness* of attire which the devotees of mere Fashion are almost sure to exhibit. Even in plain colors, or narrow stripes, etc., Fashion decrees frequent changes, but Economy requires that Fashion's views shall not be strictly followed. If any particular shade is the approved novelty of the day, Economy knows that though pretty in itself, its very prevalence will, in another year, render it almost tiresome, and therefore that it will be better to purchase

a dress of a shade that has been overlooked of late, not only because it is at present cheaper, but because it will not as soon fatigue the eye. But in the choice of ribbons, or other articles which are not expected to be worn more than one season, it is not necessary to regard this point.

Those goods which are alike on both sides—whether plain or figured—as they can be turned, are more economical than those with but "one face;" and those which have—in dressmaker's phrase—"no up nor down" to the figures, can be cut to better advantage than those in which the direction of the pattern must be considered. Indeed, it requires from one to three yards more material to cut a dress where care is necessary to match the figures, than when there is no such necessity.

Colors that readily spot or fade are undesirable, even if the material is one which can be dyed without injury, which can scarcely ever be said of any but thick and soft all-wool fabrics. Very light shades should rarely be chosen in any but washable goods, for though the wearer may be one of the neatest and most careful of beings, she cannot avoid all contact with dust and dirt; and she will feel decidedly more comfortable if her dress is one that can be washed or brushed into cleanliness, than if she is conscious that even a slight dinginess of hue must remain after her best efforts to remove the traces of a soiled car-seat, or the accidental touch of grimy fingers.

In choosing trimmings, it is always best to select something that, like real lace, is ever in fashion, and can be used upon different dresses. A few yards of good lace may cost more in the first place, but in the end will be found to be more economical than the

cheaper sorts of trimming, or than cutting up into endless ruffles and puffs, the stuff of which the dress is made, unless the latter is of some comparatively cheap material.

Gloves may make either a light or a heavy item in our yearly expense book, very much as we choose. If we select only dark, neutral tints, black, or "invisible green"—best of all colors for those whose hands perspire freely—we shall require a comparatively small number of pairs; but if we indulge in very light shades, kid-gloves may cost us as much as an elegant velvet cloak, and yet our hands will be no more neatly clad than if we wore the darker colors.

For expensive dresses we should prefer to buy the material and have it made up by a dressmaker in whom we have confidence, or by ourselves, if we possess the requisite skill, as we are then more certain of a perfect fit, and can also plan to have the stuff cut to advantage; that is, so that it can be remodelled to suit the changes of style. But for business-suits, or any dresses made of the more serviceable, but comparatively inexpensive materials, as alpacas, linens, lawns, etc., it is usually more economical to buy the ready-made suits now offered at all our best dry-goods stores. These suits may frequently be purchased at but a slight advance of what would be the cost of the material alone to those who have not the privilege of buying at wholesale rates, if the purchaser has sufficient independence of character to buy a dress made in a fashion three or four months old. Of course the dress should be examined to make sure that it is well sewed, etc.; but at a reliable dealer's—and we should patronize no other—this is always the case.

One silk dress during the year, made up first as a

dress of ceremony, and the next year transformed into a suit, and its place taken by a new one, will keep a lady, who only does the average amount of visiting, very well supplied with silks, old and new ; while one really useful suit for winter, and another for summer, with an incidental linen, and two or three house dresses, will comprise, as far as dresses are concerned, a sufficient wardrobe.

In respect to the manner of making dresses, the most important consideration is never to be led to the extreme of the *mode*, but rather to aim at the least expense of money, material, time, and *fuss*, which will enable us to pass without an appearance of singularity. And this will ensure that a dress can be worn a much longer time, without alteration, than if made in servile imitation of the fashion plates. Persons of taste—whether economically disposed or not—will avoid *tormenting* their dress with an over abundance of trimming, or with exaggerated outlines. Thus, if we must wear *paniers*, they need not be of extravagant proportions ; if some trimming is essential to finish the skirt of a walking dress, it is not necessary that we indulge in fifteen scalloped flounces ; if bonnets and hats are aspiring in tendency, it is not important that they resemble Towers of Babel ; or, if they incline to breadth of outline, it is not necessary that the sides should emulate the wings of a condor. In short, *moderation* in following the vagaries of fashion is one of the most essential principles whether of economy or taste. Or, in the words of Ruskin, which it is no perversion to apply to so important an external evidence of the mental state as dress :

"The least appearance of violence or extravagance is destruction of all beauty whatsoever, in every thing,

color, form, motion, language, or thought, giving rise to that which in color we call glaring, in form inelegant, in motion ungraceful, in language coarse, in thought undisciplined, in all unchastened."

Both economy and taste insist upon the strict observance of the previously given hints in regard to wearing any article of dress only upon suitable occasions. Scarcely anything is more wasteful than the habit of wearing, rich costly dressing, at inappropriate times and places. It is a frequent complaint that while the brocades and satins of "our grandmothers" endured for a quarter of a century or more, the silks and velvets of our own day will last but two or three years at most. There is, doubtless, some justice in the accusation of deterioration in the goods, but it should be remembered that our "venerated ancestresses" kept their one or two dresses of such expensive materials, solely for the "red letter days" of their lives, the weddings, the levees, etc. It never would have occurred to one of them to wear upon an ordinary calling excursion a silk that had cost $6.00 or $7.00 per yard, much less to don it when taking Teddy and Johnny to be fitted for new shoes.

But at present, economy is looked upon by too many persons as an ignoble thing, smacking of penuriousness, only to be practised when extravagance is impossible, and its tokens to be hidden as if they were evidences of crime. Yet, when we look at the "world of want" around us, it seems almost impossible to understand this perverted view. It would be quite so, were it not for a painful perception of the innate selfishness of many natures. Knowing this, and conscious of the fact that extravagance is but another name for selfishness, we can comprehend why it is that the *generosity*

of economy is so despised. It is a truth, though one not generally recognized, that nearly all avaricious people are lavish in expenditures for dress; while the truly generous, those who can be depended upon to open their hearts and their purses to cases of want and suffering, are those who spend comparatively little for personal decoration. In opposition to this truth is the erroneous notion that those who spend money for dress by giving employment to factory laborers and seamstresses, are actually conferring a benefit. On this subject we feel that Ruskin's words are far better than ours, and close our little volume with a paragraph from his lecture on the "management of riches."

"If you are a young lady, and employ a certain number of seamstresses for a given time, in making a given number of simple and serviceable dresses, suppose seven, of which you can wear one yourself for half the winter, and give six away to poor girls who have none, you are spending your money unselfishly. But if you employ the same number of seamstresses for the same number of days, in making four, or five, or six beautiful flounces for your own ball-dress—flounces which will clothe no one but yourself, and which you will yourself be unable to wear at more than one ball—you are employing your money selfishly. You have maintained, indeed, in each case the same number of people; but in the one case you have directed their labor to service of the community: in the other case you have consumed it wholly upon yourself, I don't say you are never to do so; I don't say you ought not sometimes to think of yourselves only, and to make yourselves as pretty as you can; only do not confuse coquettishness with benevolence, nor cheat your-

selves into thinking that all the finery you can wear is so much put into the hungry mouths of those beneath you : it is not so ; it is what you yourselves, whether you will or no, must sometimes instinctively feel it to be—it is what those who stand shivering in the streets, forming a line to watch you as you step out of your carriages, *know* it to be ; those fine dresses do *not* mean that so much less has been put into their mouths, but that so much has been taken out of their mouths. The real politico-economical signification of every one of these beautiful toilettes, is just this : that you have had a certain number of people put for a certain number of days wholly under your authority, by the sternest of slave-masters—hunger and cold ; and you have said to them, 'I will feed you indeed, and clothe you, and give you fuel for so many days ; but during these days you shall work for me only ; your little brothers need clothes, but you shall make none for them ; your sick friend needs clothes, but you shall make none for her ; you yourself will soon need another, and a warmer dress ; but you shall make none for yourself. You shall make nothing but lace and roses for me ; for this fortnight to come, you shall work at the patterns and petals, and then I will crush and consume them away in an hour.' You will perhaps answer, 'It may not be particularly benevolent to do this, and we won't call it so ; but at any rate we do no wrong in taking their labor when we pay them their wages : if we pay for their work we have a right to it.' No ; a thousand times no. The labor which you have paid for does indeed become, by the act of purchase, your own labor ; you have bought the hands and the time of these workers ; they are by right and justice your own hands, your

own time. But have you a right to spend your own time, to work with your own hands, only for your own advantage? much more when, by purchase, you have invested your own person with the strength of others; and added to your own life a part of the life of others? You may, indeed, to a certain extent, use their labor for your delight: remember I am making no general assertions against splendor of dress, or pomp of accessories of life; on the contrary there are many reasons for thinking that we do not at present attach enough importance to beautiful dress as one of the means of influencing general taste and character. But I *do* say, that you must weigh the value of what you ask these workers to produce for you in its own distinct balance; that on its own worthiness or desirableness rests the question of your kindness, and not merely on the fact of your having employed people in producing it; and I say further, that as long as there are cold and nakedness in the land around you, so long there can be no question at all but that splendor of dress is crime."

THE END.

WHAT SHALL WE EAT?

A

Manual for Housekeepers.

COMPRISING

A BILL OF FARE FOR BREAKFAST, DINNER, AND TEA, FOR EVERY DAY IN THE YEAR.

WITH AN

APPENDIX,

CONTAINING RECIPES FOR PICKLES AND SAUCES.

NEW YORK
G. P. PUTNAM'S SONS
27 AND 29 WEST 23D ST.

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PREFACE.

WHAT SHALL WE EAT?

The design of this Manual is to suggest to ladies, without the trouble of *thinking*, what is seasonable for the table, each day in the week, and how it shall be cooked. Also to present to the community of housekeepers, who sigh over the responsibility of providing for the daily wants of life, an agreeable variety, which may be varied to suit the income of the reader. The receipts have all been tested by actual experience. A daily "bill of fare" for breakfast, dinner, and tea is given, for one week in each month, which will present to the reader at once what is wanted, without the trouble of looking over a cook-book. A collection of Pickles and Sauces of rare merit form a desirable addition at the end.

BREAKFAST.

A WORD on this early meal. It should be what will best fortify a man for the labor of a long day, and should consist of palatable solids. In a chilly climate like America, wine is a mistake, even with French cookery; if strong, it diminishes business keenness; if weak, it imparts no warmth. Instinct points to hot beverages, either coffee, tea, or chocolate. Every variety of cold meats, game, potted meats, and fish, tongue, boar's head, pickled poultry, etc., are suitable, and with bread form a desirable meal. Omelets, sardines, and roes of different fish, hot buttered cakes, etc., make the eater heavy for the day. There is really no time when one needs so good a supply of food as at breakfast, when one has not eaten for twelve or fourteen hours, and fuel is needed for active existence; yet no meal is so much neglected, and people well informed fritter an appetite away on toast and tea. Fruit is a good digester, dried mango-fish from India, cranberry jam, etc., are all good. A breakfast should be as carefully composed as a dinner. Secure by art what is due to the dignity of the meal, and give it its true position.

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WHAT SHALL WE EAT?

JANUARY.

MONDAY.

Breakfast.—Cold roast beef. Potatoes à la mâitre d'Hotel. (Boil the potatoes, and cut in thin slices. Take a pint of milk, and when scalding hot, stir in a tablespoonful of butter and flour, rubbed together. Add a small bunch of parsley, chopped fine. When well mixed, throw in the potatoes, shaking carefully without a knife or spoon, to avoid breaking. Salt to taste.) Sausage toast. (Scald the sausages in boiling water, fry to a light brown, chop fine, and spread on buttered toast.) Potted fish. Rolls and butter. Tea and coffee.

Dinner.

Oyster Soup.—Take fifty oysters, strain through a sieve, and put the liquor on the fire. When scalding hot, take ¼ lb. of butter, and beat with 6 oz. of flour, roll ½ doz. butter crackers to a powder, and add all to

the liquor, with salt and pepper to the taste, and a smal. pinch of powdered mace. Then add the oysters with a quart of milk (and a gill of cream if you have it), and stir with a silver spoon for ten minutes. Do not let them *boil*, but thoroughly scald.

Boiled Halibut.

Roast Pork.—Serve with apple-sauce, potatoes, and tomatoes. Baste with a little butter and flour, and rub with dried sage crumbed.

Beef Patties.—Chop fine rare roast beef, season with pepper, salt, and a little onion. Make a plain paste, cut into shapes like an apple puff, fill with the mince, and bake quickly.

Dessert.

Flour Pudding.—Five eggs, 1 qt. milk, 4 tablespoonfuls of flour, well stirred together. Bake in a quick oven, and eat with cold sauce.

Fruit and nuts.

Tea, or Lunch, if the Dinner is late.

Cold pickled salmon, tongue, bread and butter, canned peaches, tea and coffee, Benton tea-cakes (1 qt. of flour mixed with milk to a paste, 1 tablespoonful of melted butter. Roll very thin, and bake on hot hearth).

Cream cake (1 lb. flour, 1 lb. sugar, ½ lb. of butter, ½ pt. milk, 4 eggs, citron, raisins, and spice to taste).

TUESDAY.

Breakfast.—Breaded veal cutlet. Fried potatoes. Pickled tripe. Waffles. (Put 2 pints of milk into *separate* pans; warm one slightly, melt in it ¼ lb. of butter, and set it away to cool. Beat 8 eggs, and mix with the other pan, stirring in gradually ½ lb. of flour, and a little salt. Then mix the contents of both pans together, and add a large tablespoonful of yeast. Set near the fire to rise. When quite light, heat the waffle-iron and butter it, pour in the batter, and when done one side, turn. Send to the table hot, six on a plate, buttered, and strewn with powdered sugar if desired.) Hot brown bread. Cold bread. Tea and coffee.

DINNER.

Beef Soup.—Take a shank bone, with part of the leg, and put in a kettle with soft water to cover it, with a small piece of butter to keep from burning, while the juices are extracting. Set on the back of the range, and cook slowly for six hours, then strain, and when *cold*, remove every particle of fat. Place in another pot 5 carrots, 5 onions, 1 cup of rice, ½ a bunch of celery, and a small bunch of parsley. In this pot may be placed any bones, or pieces of *cooked* meat. Let them also stew slowly for six hours, then strain through a colander, and add to the soup, with ½ a cup of tomato catsup.

Let *all* come to a boil together, then serve. Use a wooden spoon in stirring. This quantity of soup will suffice a small family for a week, and should be kept in a cool place, in an earthen vessel.

Fresh Cod, boiled, with melted butter.

Roast Chickens, with mashed potatoes, cauliflower, and stewed celery.

Cold Tongue.

Dessert.

Squash Pie.—One qt. of pulp strained through a sieve; boil 1 qt. of milk, and stir the squash into it, with 2 spoonfuls of flour shaken in. Add 2 eggs, and a piece of butter size of an egg. Season to the taste with sugar, cinnamon, and a little salt.

Coffee Custard.—Boil a pint of milk, and pour upon it, while boiling, 2 tablespoonfuls of *whole* coffee, warmed by the fire. Let it cool for an hour, then sweeten, add the yolks of 4 eggs, thicken over the fire (stirring all the time). When thick enough, strain, and fill the glasses.

Grapes, apples, and hickory nuts.

Tea, or Lunch.

Cold roast meat, raw oysters, apple-sauce, French bread and butter. Crackers. Scotch cake. (Stir to a cream 1 lb. of sugar and ¾ lb. of butter, add the juice and grated rind of a lemon, with a wine-glass of candy

Beat separately the whites and yolks of 9 eggs, and stir into the cake. Add 1 lb. of sifted flower, and just as it goes into the pan, 1 lb. of stoned raisins.)

WEDNESDAY.

Breakfast.—Hashed chicken on toast. Cold snipe. Mutton chops. Graham rolls. Dry toast. French bread and butter. Chocolate and coffee.

DINNER.

Barley Broth.—Boil gently, for half an hour, ½ pt. of pearl barley in a gallon of water. Take 3 lbs. lamb chops, with fat cut off, and put in a stewpan, with water to cover them. Add any kind of vegetables, carrots, turnips, onions, and celery cut fine. When tender, add to the barley water, and boil slowly 2 hours. Salt and pepper to taste.

Fried Scallops.

Roast Ducks, (scald, to prevent being oily,) with baked potatoes, onions, canned sweet corn, and celery.

Chicken Patties.—Chop fine and season well, and serve in puff paste.

Dessert.

Arrowroot Pudding.—Simmer a pint of milk with a little cinnamon, take a tablepoonsful of arrowroot, mix

with cold water, and pour into the milk, stirring all the time. When cold, add 3 eggs well beaten, and stir all together. Bake ½ an hour in a dish lined with puff paste, and grate a little nutmeg on the top.

Delicate Dish.—Beat the whites of 6 eggs, with 2 spoonfuls of currant jelly, to a *solid* froth, so that it will not fall. Serve with cream and powdered sugar.

Grapes, apples, and pecan nuts.

Tea, or Lunch.

Stewed oysters, cold game, French bread. Strawberry jam, sponge cake.

THURSDAY.

Breakfast.—Cold boiled ham. Cold roast duck. Omelet, with parsley. Stewed potatoes, with cream. Steamed toast. Corn bread (3 cups of meal, 1 cup of flour, 1 tablespoonful of butter, do. sugar, 1 teaspoonful of soda, 1 qt. of buttermilk, or sour milk, 2 eggs). Tea and coffee.

Dinner.

Giblet Soup.—Scald and clean a set of giblets, stew in a little gravy with 2 onions, a bunch of sweet herbs. 2 glasses of white wine, pepper, and salt. When tender, take them out and strain the broth. Make a stock with 2

lbs. of beef, and 5 pints of water. Skin 2 onions, slice thin, and fry in butter. Add flour to thicken the broth, with majoram and parsley, and stir all into the boiling stock Boil ½ an hour, pass through a sieve, and put again on the fire, skimming carefully. Add the giblets, 2 glasses of wine, and a little lemon-juice. Season well.

Boiled Striped Bass, melted butter.

Roast leg of Mutton, with boiled potatoes, fried parsnips, boiled hominy, and baked tomatoes.

Scalloped Oysters.—Scald the oysters in their own liquor, take them out with a fork, lay in a deep dish, sprinkling over each one rolled cracker crumbs, pepper and salt, and small pieces of butter. Stir a little butter and flour together, and stir into the liquor; then fill up the dish with it, and brown in the oven.

Dessert.

Baked Quince Pudding.—Scald some quinces till tender, pare, and scrape off the pulp; then strew it with ginger, cinnamon, and sugar. To a pint of milk, or cream, put the yolks of 4 eggs and stir in the quince to a proper consistency. Bake in a dish lined with paste. *Canned* quinces can be used if necessary.

Caramel Custard.—Melt ¼ lb. of pounded sugar over a slow fire till it begins to tint, stirring all the time. Boil 1 oz. of isinglass in a pint of milk, and pour it on

the caramel, stirring till quite dissolved. Beat 4 eggs and add; then stir over the fire to thicken. Put in a mould, and then set on the ice.

Fruit and nuts.

Tea, or Lunch.

Cold ham cake. (Take ham that may be getting dry, pound finely, with the fat, in a mortar, season with pepper and mixed spice; add clarified butter sufficient to moisten, and place ½ an hour in the oven. Put the mould in warm water a few minutes, that it may turn out well.) Pickled oysters, dry toast, French bread, griddle-cakes, brandy peaches, cup-cake (4 eggs, 4 cups flour, 3 cups powdered sugar, 1 cup butter, 1 cup milk, 1 glass white wine, spices, and a teaspoonful soda). Tea.

FRIDAY.

Breakfast.—Cold roast mutton, pickled pigs' feet, rolls, brown bread cream toast, boiled samp. Tea and coffee.

Dinner.

Pea Soup.—Put 1 qt. split peas into 3 qts. boiling water (first soak the peas over night); boil gently till dissolved, strain through a sieve, and add thyme, sweet marjoram, and some mushroom catsup. A small piece

of ham will improve the flavor. Serve with small pieces of fried bread.

Boiled Whitefish.

Roast Turkey.—With stewed potatoes, canned sweet corn, baked sweet potatoes, and cranberry jelly.

Beef Ragout.—Fry 2 lbs. of beef till quite brown, put it into a stewpan with 6 onions, pepper it well, and stew slowly 4 hours. Serve it up with pickled walnuts, gherkins, and capers, just warmed in the gravy.

Dessert.

Apple Pie.

Chocolate Cream.—Scrape into 1 qt. of milk (or cream) 1 oz. of best French chocolate, and add ¼ lb. of sugar. Boil and and mill it. When smooth, take it off, and add the whites of 6 eggs, beaten to a froth. Strain through a sieve, and put in glasses.

Oranges, raisins, and almonds.

TEA, OR LUNCH.

Cold turkey, roast oysters, cheese, Graham crackers, preserved ginger, tea and chocolate, almond cake (2 oz. blanched bitter almonds, pounded fine; 7 oz. flour, sifted and dried; 10 eggs; 1 pound loaf sugar, powdered and sifted, and a wine-glass of rose-water).

SATURDAY.

Breakfast.—Broiled ham, potted game, chipped potatoes, milk toast, corn bread, tea and coffee.

DINNER.

Fish Soup.—Take one pound each of any fresh water fish—pike, perch, eels, &c.; wash in salt and water, and then stew with carrots, leeks, sweet herbs, and onions, in as much water as will cover them. Stew until all is reduced to a pulp, then strain, and boil an hour, with a little mace, celery, and mushroom catsup, or any high-seasoned sauce.

Fried Clams.

Broiled Beefsteak, with celery, potatoes, and stewed tomatoes.

Broiled Snipe.

Dessert.

Cranberry Tarts.

Rice Pudding, with fruit.—Swell the rice in milk, over the fire, and add pared and quartered apples, with a little currant jelly.

Pears and dates.

TEA, OR LUNCH.

Cold corn beef, hashed chicken, fried hominy, hot biscuit, raised, cranberry sauce, chocolate, New Year's cake

(3 lbs. flour, 1½ lbs. powdered sugar, 1 lb. butter, 1 pt. milk, with a teaspoonful of soda dissolved in it, juice of a lemon. Cut into shapes to bake).

SUNDAY.

Breakfast.—Corn beef hash, cold snipe, corn meal griddle-cakes (scald half a pint of Indian meal, half a pint dry, do. flour, and stir all into a pint of milk, with a tablespoonful of butter, and one egg. Spread very thin on the griddle). Rolls, dry toast, tea and coffee.

DINNER.

Celery Soup.—Blanch the heads of two bunches of celery in warm water, and put them in a stewpan of broth made from boiled chicken, with a lump of sugar. Boil an hour, until soft enough to pass through a sieve; add a cup of milk, and season to taste.

Roast Beef, with potatoes, beans, tomatoes, and spiced currants.

Oyster Pie.

Cold Boiled Ham.

Dessert.

Apple Puffs.—Pare and core apples, stew until tender, and when cold mix with sugar, grated lemon, and a little quince marmalade. Put in thin paste, and bake ¼ of an hour.

Soft Boiled Custard.

Macaroons, grapes, apples, and figs.

TEA, OR LUNCH.

Broiled smoked salmon, sliced ham, steam toast, Graham crackers, assorted cakes, currant jelly, bread and butter, tea and chocolate.

FEBRUARY.

MONDAY.

Breakfast.—Beefsteak broiled, cold tongue, baked potatoes, cracker toast (made of Boston hard crackers dipped in boiling milk, thickened with butter and flour), corn pone. (Take a pint of meal and scald it, and when cold, add 2 eggs, salt, and a cup of milk. Heat a round cake-pan, and butter well; then put the pone in, and bake ½ an hour with a quick fire). Tea and coffee.

DINNER.

Chicken Soup with Tomato.—Boil an old fowl slowly until it falls to pieces, season with salt, whole pepper, and 2 onions. Stain it, add two cups of tomato, and boil well together.

Frost Fish Fried.

Roast Turkey, with currant jelly, mashed potatoes, and stewed celery.

Sweetbreads.—Parboil them slightly, and fry a light brown, with some mushroom catsup in the gravy.

Dessert.

Custard Cream of Chocolate.—Grate 2 oz. of spiced chocolate into a pint of milk; put into a stewpan, and add the yolks of 6 eggs. Stir over the fire until it thickens.

Bread Pudding.—1 pt. of bread crumbs, covered with milk, cinnamon, and nutmeg. Stir in, when hot, ¼ lb. of butter, ¼ lb. of sugar, and mix well together. When cool, add 6 eggs, and bake one hour in a deep dish.

Oranges, nuts, and raisins.

Tea, or Lunch.

Cold roast veal, sardines, Graham bread, French rolls, preserved pears, tea and chocolate, ginger cup-cake (5 eggs, 2 teacups of molasses, 2 do. brown sugar rolled fine, 2 do. butter, 1 cup of milk, 5 cups flour, ½ cup of powdered allspice and cloves, ½ cup ginger, ½ teaspoonful soda melted in vinegar).

TUESDAY.

Breakfast.—Codfish balls, cold turkey, muffins (1 qt. milk, 2 eggs, 2 spoonfuls of yeast, do. flour, butter size

of an egg, melted in the milk, and a little salt. Warm the milk and add the rest; let it rise, and bake on a griddle). Corn bread, rolls, tea and coffee.

Dinner.

Sago Soup.—Take 2 qts. of gravy soup, made of beef, thicken with sago to the consistency of pea soup, and season with catsup.

Codfish, with oyster sauce.

Chicken Pillau, with potatoes, fried parsnips, and stewed celery. (Put a large fat chicken, old or young, into a pot, with 1 carrot, onion, and a sprig of sweet herbs. Boil and skim. When the chicken is half cooked add a pint of tomatoes, cut up (fresh or canned), and a little broken mace. When it is done enough to eat as boiled fowl, take it up; take out the carrot and onion, and measure the liquor. There should be about 3 pints. To each $2\frac{1}{2}$ cups of soup, put 1 of rice, and when it has boiled ten minutes, stir in a piece of butter, size of an egg. Before putting in the rice, pepper and salt the broth, and when it is tender (but not too soft) take it up. Serve in an oval dish, the fowl in the middle of the rice).

Croquettes of Calf's Brains.—Blanch the brains, and beat them up with one or two chopped sage leaves, pepper, salt, a few bread crumbs soaked in milk, and 1 egg. Roll them into balls, and fry a light brown.

Dessert.

Apple Pie.—Pare and quarter apples, scald in sugar and water, and grate the rind of a lemon over them. Add the juice of the lemon, ½ doz. whole cloves, butter size of a walnut, and fill up the dish with the syrup. Use puff paste.

Almond Custard.—One pt. of cream, do. milk, ½ lb. shelled sweet almonds, 2 oz. bitter almonds, 4 tablespoonfuls rose-water, ¼ lb. white sugar, the yolks of 8 eggs, ½ teaspoonful oil of lemon. Blanch the almonds, and pound to a paste, mixing the rose-water with it. Beat the eggs very light, and add with the sugar. Stir all gradually into the cream and milk, and beat well together. Stir on the fire till thick, and when cold, add the whites beaten to a froth.

Figs and pecan nuts.

Tea, or Lunch.

Cold ham, potted fish, Indian griddle-cakes, cheese, brown biscuit (3 quarts Graham flour, put into one of milk and water, with a tablespoonful of butter, a teaspoonful of soda, and a little salt). Preserved pine-apple, tea. Harrison cake (5 cups flour, 1½ butter, 2½ sugar, 1 molasses, 1 cream, 4 eggs, 1 lb. raisins, citron, and mixed spice. Bake 3 hours).

WEDNESDAY.

Breakfast.—Broiled liver, cold venison, potato cakes fried, milk toast of Graham bread, rolls, tea and coffee.

DINNER.

Mock Turtle Soup.—Take half a calf's head, fresh, and unstripped of skin, remove the brains, and clean the head carefully in hot water, leaving it in cold water for an hour. Then put it into 6 qts. warm water, with 2 lbs. veal, do. pork, a roasted onion stuck with cloves, a rind of lemon, 2 sliced carrots, a bunch of herbs, and a head of celery. Let it boil slowly 2 hours; then take out the head and pork. Make forcemeat balls of the brains and tongue, break the bones of the head, put all into the soup, and boil 2 hours more. Put into a small stewpan a piece of butter, onions sliced thin, with parsley, thyme, mace, and allspice. Add flour to thicken, and stir into the soup slowly. Boil gently 1 hour more, pass through a sieve, season with salt, cayenne, lemon-juice, and a pint of Madeira wine. Add mushrooms if desired, and serve with lemons cut in quarters.

Fried Eels.

Broiled Woodcock, with squash, sweet potatoes, and hominy.

Boiled Corn Beef.

Dessert.

Cranberry Pie.

Burnt Cream.—Make a rich custard without sugar, flavor with lemon, and when cold, sift white sugar thickly over it, and brown in the oven.

Oranges and grapes.

Tea, or Lunch.

Fried oysters, ham cake, hominy, dry toast, preserved damsons, bread and butter, chocolate, pound cake (1 lb. flour, do. powdered sugar, 1 lb. butter, 10 eggs, ½ glass of wine, do. brandy, do. rose-water, mixed; 12 drops essence lemon, 1 tablespoonful mixed spice).

THURSDAY.

Breakfast.—Turkey hash, pickled tripe, fried potatoes, buckwheat cakes, brown and white bread, tea and coffee.

Dinner.

Rice Soup.—Make a beef soup, boil 5 hours, then strain and add a cup of rice, same of tomato, pepper and salt.

Fried Halibut.

Boiled Mutton, caper sauce, with baked potatoes, canned sweet corn, and turnips.

Calf's Liver Stewed.—Cut the liver in pieces, lard nicely, and spread chopped parsley, pepper, and salt over them. Put a small piece of butter well mixed with flour in the bottom of a stewpan, put in the liver, and let it cook gently in its own juices until done.

Dessert.

College Pudding.—Take ½ lb. of grated bread crumbs, suet (chopped fine), and currants; mix with 4 oz. of flour and 1 egg. Beat in a glass of brandy, season with nutmeg, and boil 3 hours in a mould. Serve with cold sauce.

Lemon Jelly.—One qt. calf's foot stock, ½ pt. lemon juice, ¾ lb. of sugar, the rind of 2 lemons cut *thin*, and the whites and shells of 5 eggs. Boil 20 minutes, and throw in a teacup of cold water; then let it boil 5 minutes longer. Take from the fire and let it stand ½ an hour covered close. Then run through a bag till clear.

Apples, nuts, and dates.

Tea, or Lunch.

Cold woodcock, broiled herring, cracker toast, French bread and butter, currant jelly, tea, Turk's cap (1 pint cream, 7 eggs, ½ lb. flour, and salt; bake quickly).

FRIDAY.

Breakfast.—Mutton chops, minced codfish, with egg, stewed potatoes, rice cakes, gems (wheat flour, unbolted, mixed with water and salt, baked in a roll pan on the top of the range), cold bread, tea, and coffee.

DINNER.

Clam Soup.—Strain the clams, and put on the liquor to boil; beat a spoonful of butter and 1 of flour together, with pepper, and stir into cold water; add to the soup with the clams chopped fine, and when nearly done, add a little milk.

Baked Whitefish.

Boiled Turkey, oyster sauce, with potatoes, squash, and sweet corn.

Ris de Veau.—Blanch 3 sweetbreads, and simmer in a well-flavored gravy till quite done. Have ready 3 round trays of oiled paper, and lay them in, lightly wetted with gravy, fine crumbs of bread, pepper, salt, and a little nutmeg. Do slowly on a gridiron, and serve in the cases.

Dessert.

Peach Pie.

Fancy Cakes.

Figs, nuts, and prunes.

Tea, or Lunch.

Veal cake. (Bone a breast of veal, and cut in slices cut also slices of ham, and boil 6 eggs hard; butter a deep pan, and place all in layers, one over the other, cutting the eggs in slices, and seasoning with cayenne, chopped herbs, anchovy, or any high-flavored sauce. Cover, and bake 4 hours, and when taken from the oven lay a weight upon it; when cold, turn it out.) Cold roast beef, English pickles, crackers assorted, strawberry jam, rolls, plain cake (4 lbs. flour, 2 lbs. currants, and ½ lb. of butter, with clove, carraway seeds, and lemon peel, grated to the taste. Wet with milk, and ½ pt. yeast).

SATURDAY.

Breakfast.—Venison steak, cold boiled mutton, waffles, Indian banock, bread and butter, cocoa and coffee

Dinner.

Vermicelli Soup.—Plain beef, without vegetables; when strained, add vermicelli.

Striped Bass, Broiled.

Boiled Beef, sauce piquant, with tomatoes, potatoes, and parsnips, boiled.

Boil the *rump* slowly for 5 hours; make a strong

gravy of veal, ham, 2 spoonfuls of vinegar, parsley, cloves, onions, and herbs. Strain, and add mushrooms, capers, and a glass of brandy.

Grouse Roasted.

Dessert.

Mince Pie.—Take 2 lbs. of beef chopped fine, 2 lbs. stoned raisins, 2 lbs. currants, 1 lb sultana raisins, 2 lbs. apples, ¾ lb. sugar, 2 lbs. suet, the juice of 2 lemons, and the rind of 1 chopped fine, ¼ lb. of mixed spice, 2 glasses of brandy, 2 oz. of citron, and 2 of candied lemon peel. Mix well together in a jar. It will improve by lying a few days. Use puff paste.

Blanc Mange.—Boil 1½ oz. of isinglass, 3 oz. of sweet and 6 oz. of bitter almonds, (well pounded,) in a quart of milk. Sweeten, strain through a napkin, and put in the mould.

Fruit and nuts.

TEA, OR LUNCH.

Cold boiled turkey, scalloped oysters. (Dry the oysters with a cloth, and spread in layers in a deep dish, sprinkling each layer with pepper and salt, butter, and bread crumbs or rolled cracker. Bake 20 minutes.) Muffins, bread and butter, raspberry jam, Madeira buns (beat 8 oz. of butter to a cream, and add 2 eggs, take 14 oz. of flour, 6 of white sugar, ½ nutmeg, one teaspoon-

ful ginger, and a spoonful of carraway seeds. Mix and work into the butter, and beat ½ an hour. Add a wine-glass of sherry, and bake quick in patty pans). Tea.

SUNDAY.

Breakfast.—Liver hash, cold grouse, chipped potatoes, gems of cornmeal, brown bread milk toast, buckwheat cakes. (To 2 pts. of buckwheat flour mixed into a batter, add one teaspoonful of carbonate of soda, and one of tartaric acid dissolved in water. Bake at once.) Tea and coffee.

DINNER.

Bean Soup —Soak a pint of small white beans over night, boil slowly 3 hours, adding a small piece of ham when half done. Season well, and strain.

Hard-shell Crabs.

Roast Beef, with rice, sweet potatoes, and baked tomatoes.

Potted Pigeons.—Stew the gizzards and livers, chopped fine; add grated ham, bread crumbs, and herbs. Make into a forcemeat, rolling it round the yolk of a hard-boiled egg, and stuff the pigeons. Put into a stew-pan with water and a little butter; add gravy of the gizzards, a little flour, and an onion. Stew gently until done, adding a glass of wine.

Dessert.

German Puffs.—Put ½ lb. of butter into ½ a pt. of milk, and when it boils add a cup of flour; beat well together, and when cold add 6 eggs well beaten, with ½ cup of sugar, and grated lemon. Bake in a moderate oven.

Pomme Mange.—Peel and core 1 lb. of apples, and add to ½ lb. of sugar and ½ pt. of water. Boil till quite stiff, with some lemon peel. Put in a mould.

Oranges, bananas, and nuts.

TEA, OR LUNCH.

Cold lamb, smoked salmon, broiled. Graham dry toast, cheese, milk biscuit, preserved grapes, rice cake (1 lb. ground rice, do lump sugar sifted, 8 eggs well beaten, the rind of a lemon. Beat all half an hour; and bake 1½ hours). Tea.

MARCH.

MONDAY.

Breakfast.—Boiled eggs, toast, breaded lamb chops, fried potatoes, pickled tripe, corn bread, rolls. Tea and coffee.

Dinner.

Soup à la Julienne.—Cut in pieces size of dice 1 head of celery, 2 carrots, 2 turnips, some small button onions, heads of asparagus (dried) and hearts of lettuce. Boil slowly, and add to a beef broth. Use neither pepper or catsup

Blackfish, boiled, melted butter.

Roast Veal, with potatoes stewed, cauliflower, and tomatoes.

Toad-in-a-hole.—Make a common batter of eggs, flour, and milk, rather thick, and put in the centre a fowl boned and stuffed with forcemeat; cover entirely with batter, and bake it. (Any kind of meat may be dressed in the same manner.)

Dessert.

Pound Cake Pudding.—One pt. flour, 1 cup milk, do. sugar, do. butter, 2 teaspoonfuls cream of tartar, sifted in the flour, 1 of soda (dissolved in the milk), 3 eggs. Bake 1 hour, and serve with wine sauce.

Raspberry Cream.—Put ½ oz. isinglass, dissolved in water, into a pint of cream, sweetened to the taste; boil it. When nearly cold, lay some raspberry jam in a glass dish, and pour the cream over it.

Bananas, pecans, and figs.

Tea, or Lunch.

Cold Turkey, pickled salmon, fried clams, crackers and cheese, toast, peach sauce. Prune tartlets.

TUESDAY.

Breakfast.—Poached eggs on toast, hashed veal, cold snipe, chipped potatoes, Graham rolls, bread, chocolate and coffee.

Dinner.

Veal Broth.—4 lbs. scrag of veal, and a bunch of sweet herbs, simmer in 6 qts. of water; when half done skim, and add an onion. Add 2 oz. rice, parsley, celery pepper, and salt.

Fresh Mackerel, broiled.

Boiled Leg of Lamb.—Caper sauce, with fried parsnips, hominy, sweet corn, and potatoes.

Miroton of Veal.—Chop very fine cold dressed veal and ham, mix with a slice of bread soaked in milk, and squeezed dry, 2 onions chopped and browned, salt, pepper, and a little cream. Put all into a stewpan until hot, and well mixed, then add 1 or 2 eggs, butter a mould and bake until it is brown. Serve with fresh gravy.

Dessert.

Winibeg Pudding.—Pound and sift 5 crackers, and mix with a cup of boiling water, one of sugar, and the juice and peel of a lemon. Bake in a crust.

Orange Custard.—The juice of 6 oranges, strained, and sweetened with loaf sugar; stir over a slow fire till the sugar is dissolved, taking off the scum; when nearly cold add the yolks of 6 eggs well beaten, and a pint of cream (or milk.) Stir over the fire till it thickens, and serve in glasses. Double the quantity if required.

Filberts, oranges, and raisins.

TEA, OR LUNCH.

Broiled oysters, ham cake, cold lamb, rolls, wheat biscuit, (1 pt. sour milk, 1 teaspoonful soda, do. salt, ½ cup molasses, thicken with wheat meal. Take out enough for a biscuit with a spoon, and roll gently in flour.) Dried apple sauce, Apees cake, (1 lb. flour, ½ lb. butter, do. powdered sugar, ½ glass of wine, a teaspoonful cinnamon, cloves, and allspice, 3 of carraway seeds,) tea, and chocolate.

WEDNESDAY.

Breakfast.—Omelet with parsley, cold boiled ham mutton chops, stewed potatoes, steam toast, corn bread, tea and coffee, rolls.

Dinner.

Soupe à la Flamande.—Take 2 carrots, turnips, and onions, a small quantity of celery and lettuce, shred them in pieces, and stew slowly till tender with a teacup of gravy and a piece of butter. Then add a qt. of any sort of broth, and stew gently for an hour with salt, mace, a little sugar, and cayenne. Mix the yolks of 3 eggs well with ½ pt. of cream, (or milk,) and stir in just before it is served.

Smelts.

Roast Beef.—With beets, mashed potatoes, stewed celery, and canned tomatoes.

Oyster Patties.

Dessert.

Baked Indian Pudding.—Take 6 eggs to 1 qt. milk, and 3 tablespoonfuls of meal. Bake ½ an hour. Boiled molasses sauce.

Brandy Cherries.

Macaroons.

Oranges, and candied fruits.

Tea, or Lunch.

Game pâté, veal cake, sardines, waffles, bread, jelly cake, grape jelly, plum cake, chocolate.

THURSDAY.

Breakfast.—Ham and eggs, cold beef, pickled pigs' feet, buckwheat cakes, rolls, cream toast Graham, tea and coffee.

DINNER.

Turtle Maigre Soup.—Use the turtle flesh (preserved in jars in a state of jelly) stewed up in a vegetable, or fish stock, instead of meat, in sufficient quantity to make it limpid. Season with Madeira wine, lemon, thyme, marjoram, and parsley; also nutmeg, allspice, mace, cloves, pepper, and salt, ½ teaspoonful of curry powder, and a few truffles.

Fried Porgies.

Roast Canvass-back Ducks, with onions, sweet corn, carrots, and potatoes.

Fried Sweetbreads.

Dessert.

Apple Pie.

Champagne Cream.—Beat the yolks of 6 eggs with powdered sugar till stiff, pour over it gradually, stewing all the time, a bottle of champagne cream. Cider will also do.

Bananas, oranges, and pecans.

TEA, OR LUNCH.

Cold chicken, Pâté de fois gras, olives, steam toast,

Graham bread, French bread, apple jelly, (pour 1 qt. of apple juice on 1 lb. fresh apples pared and cored, simmer till well broken, strain off the juice, and let it stand till cold. Then add 2 oz. isinglass, 9 oz. sugar, 2 lemons, rind and juice, and whites and shells of 8 eggs. Let it boil ¼ of an hour, strain, and put in a mould), hot gingerbread, (1 pt. molasses, do. sour milk, ⅔ of a cup butter, a spoonful of ginger, and a little salt. Mix thick as cake), tea.

FRIDAY.

Breakfast.—Lamb chops, clam fritters, scrambled eggs, milk toast, corn bread, rolls, tea, and coffee.

DINNER.

Oyster Soup.—Given in January.

Boiled Halibut, melted butter.

Curry of Chicken, with rice, squash, and turnips.

Cut up a raw chicken, put it in a stewpan with 2 oz. of butter, ½ an onion sliced thin, a few sprigs of parsley and thyme, and 2 oz. lean ham; let the whole stew gently a few minutes. Add a large spoonful curry powder, and a small one of flour. Shake the whole 5 minutes over the fire, then put to it a pint of gravy or

water; let the whole simmer till the chicken is done then take it out, and rub the sauce through a sieve, boil it up, skim, and season well.

Veal Patties.

Dessert.

Miroton of Apples.—Scald the apples, reduce to a pulp, and pile high on the dish in which they are to be served; boil 1 teaspoonful of grated lemon-peel, and 6 or 8 lumps of sugar in a teacup of water; then add the yolks of 3 eggs, and the white of 1, ½ oz. butter, a spoonful of flour, and 1 of brandy, mix the whole over the fire, and stir quite smooth. Pour it on the apples, then whisk the whites of the other 2 eggs to a froth, put them over the miroton just as it is going into the oven, and sift some sugar over it. Bake 10 or 15 minutes in a slow oven.

Rhenish Cream.—Dissolve 1 oz. isinglass in 1 pt. hot water, let it stand till cold; take the yolks of 5 eggs, the juice of 3 lemons, ½ pt. white wine, ½ lb. lump sugar. Stir all together, and let them boil gently till thick enough to put into moulds.

Dates, oranges, and nuts.

TEA, OR LUNCH.

Cold stewed pigeons, cold ham, pickled pig's head, muffins, flour griddle-cakes, green grape preserves, feather

cake (3 cups raised dough, 2 of suger, 2 eggs, ½ cup warm milk, 1 cup butter, 1 teaspoonful soda, grate a lemon rind, stand near the fire till light), tea, and choco late.

SATURDAY.

Breakfast.—Fresh cod fried, fried eggs, pickled tongue, corn beef hash, potatoes à la maitre d' hotel raised biscuit, toast, tea, and coffee.

DINNER.

Spring Soup.—Take all kinds of green vegetables, asparagus tops, spinach, lettuce, onions, etc., and stew thick in any good broth.

Baked Mackerel.—Take off the heads, clean the fish, and replace the roes, rub with salt, pepper, and allspice. Pack the fish close in a deep baking-pan, cover with equal parts cold vinegar and water, and bake 1 hour in a slow oven.

Mutton Kebobbed.—Cut a loin of mutton into steaks, take off the fat and skin; mix a grated nutmeg with a little salt, pepper, crumbs, and herbs; dip the steaks into the yolks of 3 eggs beaten, and sprinkle the mixture over them. Then place the steaks together as they were before cut, tie, and fasten on a spit, and roast before a quick fire. Set a dish under it, and baste with the

liquor and a piece of butter. When done lay in a deep dish, and put over it, ½ pt. gravy, 2 spoonfuls ketchup and a teaspoonful of flour, first boiled and skimmed.

Lobster Salad.—Mash with a wooden spoon the yolks of 9 eggs boiled hard, mix with ½ pt. sweet oil, (or cream) add 1 gill mixed mustard, ½ teaspoon cayenne, and 1 teaspoon salt. Cut the lobster fine with lettuce, and a few minutes before it is to be eaten, mix the dressing with it thoroughly.

Peach Pie.

Arrowroot Pudding.—1 spoonful of powder mixed in 2 of cold milk; pour on it 1 pt. boiling milk, in which have been dissolved 4 oz. butter and 2 of sugar, stirring well. Add a little nutmeg and 5 eggs, bake ½ an hour in a dish lined with paste.

Oranges, bananas, and Madeira nuts.

Tea, or Lunch.

Potted veal, stewed lobster, cream toast, crackers and cheese, canned pears, rolls, tea. Fancy cakes.

SUNDAY.

Breakfast.—Beefsteak, with mushroom sauce, cold potted pigeons, corn muffins, steam toast, boiled eggs, cold bread. Tea and coffee.

Dinner.

Scots' Kail Soup.—4 lbs. mutton to 1 gallon cold water, and 2 oz. pearl barley; stew until tender, with 2 onions. Have ready the hearts of 2 cabbages chopped fine, put into the broth, and boil uncovered till reduced to 2 qts. Add only pepper and salt.

Flounders Fried.

Roast Partridges.—With spinach, salsify, and potatoes.

Lamb's Head.—Parboil, and rub with the yolk of an egg, cover thickly with herbs, crumbs of bread, butter and put in the oven. Mince the heart and liver, stew in a good gravy, adding a spoonful of ketchup. Make some forcemeat balls, place the mince in a dish with the head upon it, and garnish with the balls, sliced lemon, and pickles.

Dessert.

Cottage Pudding.—Break 1 egg in a pan, add a cup sugar, 1 teaspoon butter, 2 cream of tartar, 1 soda, a cup of milk, and 3 of flour. Pare and slice a lemon, and stir into the batter. Bake $\frac{3}{4}$ of an hour, and eat with cold sauce.

Prune Tarts.

Figs, oranges, and nuts.

Tea, or Lunch.

Cold chicken pie, sardines, cold lamb, hot biscuits, cream toast, crackers and cheese, apple jelly, oleycooks (from Washington Irving,—1 pt. milk, ¼ lb. butter, 2 eggs, 1 tablespoonful brewer's yeast, ½ cup sugar, a little salt and nutmeg. Stand over night till very light, and fry in boiling lard.) Tea and chocolate.

APRIL.

MONDAY.

Breakfast.—Fresh shad broiled, poached eggs, corn bannock, cold roast veal, dry toast, rice cakes, rolls and bread. Tea and coffee.

Dinner.

Soup à la Bisque.—¼ lb. rice, and 12 crabs, (soft shell); boil in good broth, and when done pound, and rub through a sieve. Fill the heads of the crabs with fish stuffing, and add a little butter.

Bluefish Broiled.

Roast Veal, stuffed, with Bermuda potatoes, raw tomatoes dressed, and asparagus.

Lobster Plain.

Dessert.

Jelly Tarts of Puff Paste.

Cocoanut Pudding.—Grate a cocoanut after taking off the brown skin, mix with 3 oz. white powdered sugar, and ½ peel of a lemon; mix well with milk, put in a tin lined with paste, and bake not too brown.

Bananas, and nuts.

TEA, OR LUNCH.

Veal cake, cold tongue, Graham dry toast, preserved pears, rolls, crackers and cheese, cup cake with almonds.

TUESDAY.

Breakfast.— Veal hash, omelet, stewed potatoes, wheat gems, brown bread cream toast, rolls. Tea, and coffee, potted fish.

DINNER.

Black Bean Soup. — Thicken a strong beef broth, strained, with black beans.

Baked Shad.

Roast Lamb, mint sauce, with baked potatoes, asparagus, and spinach.

Pigeon Pie.—Cut a nice rump steak into small pieces, and cover the bottom of a dish, add seasoning, and sweet

herbs. Boil 2 eggs hard, chop the livers fine, add bread crumbs, butter, and seasoning, and stuff the pigeons. Put in with the steak, cover with water or gravy, and bake with a paste.

Dessert.

Apple Dumplings.—1 large apple, quartered, cored, and put together, covered with a thin paste, and boiled till done. As many as are needed, serve with hot sauce.

Chocolate Pudding.—Boil 1 pt. milk, dissolve in it 1 oz. of chocolate, sweeten with loaf sugar, add the yolks of 8, and the whites of 4 eggs well beaten; strain, and pour into a mould, buttered and papered; steam for ½ an hour; let it settle for 10 minutes, and serve with the following sauce: boil ½ stick vanilla in 1 pt. milk till it is reduced one half; strain, sweeten, and thicken with arrowroot.

Figs, and nuts.

Tea, or Lunch.

Ham sandwiches, (chop the ham fine, and season with mustard, pepper, and salt, spread between thin slices buttered bread,) cold game, minced codfish, rolls, toast, stewed prunes, kringles. (Beat well yolks of 8, and whites of 2 eggs, mix with 4 oz. butter, warmed, 1 lb. flour, and 4 oz. sugar to a paste. Roll into thick biscuits, and bake on tin plates.

WEDNESDAY.

Breakfast.—Blue fish, scrambled eggs, baked potatoes, cold chicken, Indian griddle-cakes, rolls, tea and coffee.

DINNER.

Turnip Soup.—Scrape fine 6 large turnips into 2 qts. strong beef soup, with 2 onions fried in butter. Let it simmer slowly, then rub through a sieve till smooth.

Boiled Halibut, oyster sauce.

Roast Beef, with Yorkshire pudding, and vegetables. 1 pt. boiling milk to a small loaf of bread, crumbed fine, 4 eggs, a little salt and flour. Bake in a tin under the drippings of the beef.

Matelote of Fish.—Cut into small pieces any white fish, put into a stewpan with 1 oz. of butter to brown, adding ½ pt. wine, do. good gravy, spice, and seasoning, a sliced carrot and turnip. Take the fish out carefully, keep hot, and thicken the gravy with butter and flour, adding 6 button onions which have been scalded, the same of mushrooms and oysters, lemon-juice, and cayenne. Pour boiling hot on the fish.

Dessert.

Dried Apple Pie.

Rice Custards.—Sweeten a pint of milk, and boil, sifting in ground rice till thick; take off the fire, and

add 3 eggs, beaten; stir again over the fire for three minutes, and put into cups that have lain in cold water without wiping. When cold turn out, and pour soft custard around them, with currant jelly on the top of each one.

Prunes, oranges, and candied fruits.

Tea, or Lunch.

Mutton kidneys, fried. (Cut in thin slices, flour and fry quickly, serve in good gravy). Roast beef deviled, sardines, apple fritters, (yolks of 6 eggs, whites of 3; beat well and strain, then add 1 pt. milk, a little salt, ½ nutmeg grated, and a glass of brandy. Mix into a thick batter with flour, slice the apples in round, taking out the core, dust with sugar, (let them stand an hour or two) and dip each slice in batter, frying in boiling lard.) Rolls, toast, grape jelly, chocolate.

THURSDAY.

Breakfast.—Codfish balls, fried Indian pudding, boiled eggs, cold lamb, milk toast, rolls, tea, and coffee.

Dinner.

Chicken Soup.—Boiled, strained, with rice and seasoning.

Spanish Mackerel.

Roast Ducks, with asparagus, lettuce, and tomatoes, currant jelly.

Breaded Veal Cutlets.

Dessert.

Brandy Pudding.—Line a mould with stoned raisins or dried cherries, then with thin slices of French roll, next to which put macaroons, then again fruit, rolls, and cakes, till the mould be full, sprinkling in by degrees 2 wine-glasses of brandy. Beat 4 eggs, put to a pint of milk or cream, lightly sweetened, ½ a nutmeg, and the rind of ½ a lemon grated. Let the liquid sink into the solid part, then tie tight with a floured cloth, and boil 1 hour. Keep the mould right side up. Serve with sauce.

Cream Fritters.—One and a half pts. of flour to 1 pt. of milk; beat to a froth with 6 eggs; add 1 pt cream, ½ nutmeg, a teaspoonful salt, mix well, and fry in small cakes.

Bananas and nuts.

TEA, OR LUNCH.

Roast oysters, cold miroton of veal, minced fresh fish, Boston crackers, with anchovy sauce, (soak the crackers split in cold water, butter and spread on the sauce thickly.) Muffins, bread, quince marmalade, sponge cake, (1 coffee-cup sugar, do. flour, 4 eggs.) Tea and cocoa.

FRIDAY.

Breakfast.—Shad roes fried brown, omelet with parsley, lamb chops, chipped potatoes, brown bread, rolls, tea and coffee.

DINNER.

New England Chowder.—Fry thin slices of pork in a deep pot; lay in the head and shoulders of a fresh cod, cut in pieces, put in layers, the pork between; season with pepper, salt, and a few cloves; fill up with water and boil; when nearly done add a pint of milk, and 6 Boston crackers split open.

Broiled Shad.

Roast Chickens, with potatoes, asparagus, and tomatoes.

Ragout of Veal.— Fry 2 lbs. of veal till brown, then put into a stew-pan with 6 onions, pepper and mixed spice, add boiling water, and let it stew slowly for 4 hours. Serve with pickled walnuts, or capers, in the gravy.

Dessert.

Almond Pudding.—Two and-a-half oz. white bread crumbs, steeped in a pint of cream, (or milk) $\frac{1}{2}$ pt. blanched almonds pounded to a paste, with a little water, yolks of 6 eggs and whites of 3, beaten; mix all

together, and add 3 oz. sugar, and 1 oz. beaten butter. Stir over the fire till thick, and bake in a puff paste.

Blueberry Pie.—Use canned fruit.

Oranges, almonds, and raisins.

Tea, or Lunch.

Clam fritters, cold tongue, potted fish, stewed potatoes, hot brown bread, steam toast, preserved plums, buns

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SATURDAY.

Breakfast.—Fresh trout, fried chicken, with cream, water cresses, scrambled eggs, Graham biscuit, corn bread, rolls, tea and coffee.

Dinner.

Mullagatawnee Soup.—Six onions, and ½ lb. butter, pound well, and add 3 spoonfuls curry powder, a little cayenne and salt. Beat all together with some India pickle and flour, and stir into 3 qts. of strong beef soup. Let it boil half an hour, rub through a sieve, and serve with rice.

Baked Bluefish.

Beef à la mode, with turnips, carrots and potatoes. A round of beef, weighing 20 lbs., rub with salt, and tie with tape; chop the marrow from the bone, ¼ lb. suet,

herbs, thyme, and parsley; add 2 grated nutmegs, ½ oz. cloves, do. mace, tablespoon pepper, do. salt, and 2 glasses Madeira wine; cut 1 lb. pork in small pieces, make incisions in the beef and slip in, then lay in a deep dish, and cover with the seasoning. Bake or stew slowly (with water in the dish) 12 hours. If to be eaten hot, begin the night before. Add wine and a beaten egg in the gravy.

Sweetbreads, fried.

Dessert.

Bread Pudding.—One pt. bread-crumbs, covered with milk, add cinnamon, lemon-peel, and grated nutmeg; put them on a gentle fire until the crumbs are well soaked. Take out the cinnamon, and lemon-peel, beat the milk and crumbs together, add 4 eggs well beaten, 1 oz. butter, 2 oz. sugar, ½ lb. currants, and boil it one hour.

Pine-apples, and macaroons.

Oranges, and nuts.

TEA, OR LUNCH.

Oyster pie, cold corned beef, eggs on toast, cranberry jelly, biscuit, Turk's cap, sponge cake.

SUNDAY.

Breakfast.—Veal chops, with tomato sauce, fried potatoes. cold ham, poached eggs, corn bannock, bread tea and coffee.

DINNER.

Oyster Soup.

Fried Perch.

Boiled Chicken, with potatoes, asparagus, macaroni, and rice.

Broiled Pigeons.—Cut the pigeons down the back, flatten, and truss. Egg them both sides, season, dip in chopped herbs and crumbs, a little warmed butter sprinkled over them, and broil a light brown.

Dessert.

Tipsy Pudding.—Lay in a dish slices of sponge or pound cake, well soaked in brandy, and pour over them a rich soft custard.

Jam Tarts.

Pine-apples and oranges.

TEA, OR LUNCH.

Cold à la mode beef, broiled ham, mashed potato cakes fried, cheese, crackers, preserves, pound cake with fruit.

MAY.

MONDAY.

Breakfast.—Fried perch, potted game, water-cresses, clam fritters, boiled eggs, rolls, bread, tea, and coffee.

Dinner.

Tomato Soup.—Cut up 2 onions, and fry them in butter; when the onions are brown, add to them a dozen tomatoes, from which you have squeezed the water. Put in a pot with a turnip, 2 lettuces, a piece of lean ham, a stick of celery, some herbs, spice, and a piece of butter. Let it simmer for ½ an hour, stirring occasionally, then fill up with stock, and allow it to boil gently 2 hours. Put in 2 French rolls crumbed, and when done rub through a colander.

Broiled Salmon.

Leg of Lamb boiled, melted butter, with asparagus, potatoes, lettuce, and tomatoes.

Hard-Shell Crabs.

Dessert.

Soft Custards, baked in Paste.

Montagu Pudding.—Half lb. chopped suet, 4 table spoonfuls of flour, 4 eggs, and 4 spoonfuls of milk mixed

into a batter, add ½ lb. stoned raisins, a little sugar and boil 4 hours.

Pine-apple, bananas, and nuts.

Tea, or Lunch.

Fried shad roes, game pâté, German toast. (Take the remainder of a fricassee or ragout, chop fine, add a few herbs with parsley, and mix with 1 or 2 eggs, according to quantity. Put it on the fire with gravy, and let it reduce or thicken. When cold, spread thickly on toast, brush lightly with beaten egg, sprinkle bread-crumbs on each piece, and bake in the oven.) Rolls, bread, sliced pine-apple with sugar, bread cake. (Take raised dough for one loaf, and knead well into it 2 oz. butter, do. sugar, and 8 oz. currants. Warm the butter in a cup of milk.) Tea and chocolate.

TUESDAY.

Breakfast.—Broiled spring chicken, fried potatoes, cold pigeon pie, brown bread, raised biscuit. Tea and coffee.

Dinner.

Veal Broth.—Stew a knuckle of veal, 5 lbs. in 3 qts. water, with an onion, 2 blades of mace, a head of celery

parsley, pepper and salt. Let it simmer gently till reduced to 2 qts. Take out the meat, and serve separately; add 2 oz. boiled rice to the broth.

Baked stuffed Shad.

Breaded Lamb Chops, with asparagus, potatoes, and green peas.

Cold Tongue.

Dessert.

Rhubarb Pie.

Flemish Cream.—Dissolve ½ oz. isinglass in a pint of water, strain it, and add to ½ pt. cream. Add a glass of brandy, color with currant jelly, whisk to a froth, and put into a mould.

Madeira nuts and oranges.

TEA, OR LUNCH.

Cold lamb, lobster salad, sardines, vegetable toast. Take stewed vegetables, and make it into a purée; add more seasoning, the yolk of an egg, and thicken over the fire. Spread on toast, add bread-crumbs, brush with egg, and bake.) Green gage preserves, buns, (½ lb. flour, ½ lb. sugar, 1 lb. butter, melted in a little warm water, 6 spoonfuls rose water, and ½ pt. yeast. Make a light dough, and add caraway seeds.) Tea and cocoa.

WEDNESDAY.

Breakfast.—Veal chops breaded, broiled shad, stewed potatoes, pickled tongue, water-cresses, rice cake, Graham biscuit, bread. Tea and coffee.

Dinner.

White Soup.—Boil fowls to a jelly, pound the meat in a mortar, and add to the broth. Take 2 qts. of this stock to 4 of water, season, and thicken with 1 lb. rice flour.

Stewed Lobster.

Chicken Pot Pie.—Cut the chicken in small pieces, stew slowly, and thicken the gravy with stirred butter and flour. Make a paste of cream tartar and soda, put on the top, cover tight, and stew ½ an hour.

Boiled Corned beef.

Dessert.

Cocoanut Pie.—Grate the white part, mix with milk, and boil slowly ten minutes; allow 1 qt. milk to 1 lb. cocoanut, 8 eggs, 4 spoonfuls sugar, a glass of wine, a small cracker pounded fine, and 2 spoonfuls melted butter. Bake in deep plates lined with puff paste.

Dutch Butter.—Two oz. isinglass dissolved in a pint of water, with a lemon peel. Add a pint white wine,

the juice of 3 lemons, yolks of 8 eggs well beaten sweeten, make quite hot, and strain into moulds.

Almonds, raisins, and bananas.

Tea, or Lunch.

Cold roast veal, corn pone, sweetbreads fried, cheese and assorted crackers, preserved ginger, Queen Cake, (1 lb. powdered sugar, 1 lb. butter, 14 oz. flour, 10 eggs, 1 wine-glass brandy and wine mixed, 12 drops essence of lemon, 1 teaspoonful cinnamon and cloves, and 1 nutmeg.)

THURSDAY.

Breakfast.—Boiled ham and poached eggs, chipped potatoes, cold roast beef, corn bread, water cresses, dry toast, fried shad roes. Tea and coffee.

Dinner.

Sago Soup.—Any white soup thickened with sago.

Broiled Fresh Mackerel.

Roast Lamb, mint sauce, with potatoes, spinach, and raw tomatoes.

Beef Collops.—Cut the inside of a sirloin into circular shapes, the size and thickness of a quarter of a dollar, flour, and fry them; sprinkle with pepper, salt, chopped parsley make a gravy, and serve with tomato sauce.

Dessert.

Tapioca Pudding.

Brown Bread Ice.—Grate stale brown bread, and soak in cream; sweeten, and freeze.

Bananas and prunes.

TEA, OR LUNCH.

Ham toast. (Grate or pound cold ham, mix with the yolk of an egg and a little cream, warm over the fire, and serve hot on toast,) corned beef hash, corn bread, crackers, and cheese, stewed prunes, steam toast, macaroons. Tea.

FRIDAY.

Breakfast.—Broiled shad, stewed clams, pickled pig's head, corn muffins, hashed lamb, bread, rolls. Coffee.

DINNER.

Clam Soup.

Bluefish, Broiled.

Stewed Veal, with asparagus, spinach, and potatoes.

Lobster Salad.—Dress like chicken salad.

Dessert.

Gloucester Pudding.—Take 3 eggs, same weight in

butter and flour each, 5 oz. sugar, and 12 bitter almonds powdered, beat well, and bake ½ an hour in cups.

Jelly Tarts.

Fruit and nuts.

Tea, or Lunch.

Cold boiled ham, raw oysters, sardines, muffins toast, preserved damsons, black plum cake. (1 lb. flour, do butter, do. white sugar, 12 eggs, 2 lbs. raisins, 2 lbs. currants, 2 tablespoonfuls mixed spice, 2 nutmegs powdered, a glass wine, brandy, and rose water, and 1 lb citron.) Tea and chocolate.

SATURDAY.

Breakfast.—Minced veal on toast, cold birds, gems, boiled eggs, brown bread. Tea and coffee.

Dinner.

Beef Soup with Vermicelli.

Bass, Boiled.

Roast Beef, with potatoes, spinach, and green peas.

Stewed Pigeons.

Dessert.

Cranberry and Rice Jelly.—Strain the berries after boiling, and thicken with ground rice, sweeten, boil gently and serve with cream.

Snow Cream.—Put to a quart of cream (or milk) the whites of 3 eggs well beaten, 4 spoonfuls sweet wine. sugar to taste, and whip to a froth.

Pine-apple and nuts.

TEA, OR LUNCH.

Cold quail, roast beef, Anchovy toast, Turk's cap, oyster patties, waffles, rolls, quince jelly, sponge cake.

SUNDAY.

Breakfast.— Omelet, cold tongue, pickled salmon, brown bread, milk toast, broiled tripe, biscuit, bread. Tea and coffee.

DINNER.

Spring Soup.—Strong veal or mutton broth, thickened with greens, asparagus, etc.

Trout.

Roast Ducks, with peas, asparagus, and rice.

Beefsteak, with Mushrooms.

Cold Ham.

Dessert.

Bakewell Pudding.—The yolks of 4 eggs and whites of 2 eggs, with ½ lb. powdered sugar, and ¼ clarified butter. When well mixed, stir over the fire, till it thickens. Line a dish with puff paste, and put in a layer of candied

peel about an inch thick; then pour the mixture on it and bake in a slow oven.

Italian Cream.—Juice of a lemon, grated rind of 2, and 1 qt. cream. Stir over the fire till thick.

Chocolate bonbons and nuts.

TEA, OR LUNCH.

Omelet with parsley, clam fritters, milk toast, pâté de foie gras, cold meat, veal cake, pound cake, preserved cherries. Tea.

JUNE.

MONDAY.

Breakfast.—Fried trout, pickled tongue, potted game, steam toast, Graham biscuit, boiled eggs, cucumbers. Tea and coffee.

DINNER.

Green Pea Soup.—Boil 1 qt. fresh peas in salt water, with a handful of parsley and sorrel, until perfectly tender. Drain, and pound in a mortar, and mix gradually into veal or beef broth. Season with pepper and salt, fry some boiled onions and lettuce, with bread cut into dice, and put into the soup before serving, also a few heads of boiled asparagus.

Boiled Salmon, melted butter.

Broiled Chicken, with peas, string beans, and potatoes.

Fricandels of Veal.—Chop the fat and lean of 3 lbs. of a loin of veal very fine; then soak a French roll in some milk; beat 3 eggs; add pepper, salt, and mace. Make the mixture somewhat in the shape of a small chicken, rub it with egg and bread-crumbs, fry until brown, pour off the fat, boil water in the pan, and stew the fricandels in this gravy; two will make a handsome dish; thicken the gravy.

Dessert.

Macaroni Pudding.—Simmer 1 or 2 oz. of pipe macaroni in a pint of milk, with a bit of lemon and cinnamon, till tender; put it into a dish with milk, 2 or 3 yolks of eggs, but only 1 white; sugar, nutmeg, a spoonful of peach water, and ½ glass raisin wine. Bake with paste around the edges.

Bohemian Cream.—Rub a pint of fresh strawberries through a sieve, add 6 oz. powdered sugar, the juice of a lemon, 1½ oz. isinglass dissolved in ½ pt. water. Mix all together, and set on the ice, stirring till it begins to set. Whip a pint of cream to a froth, and stir into the strawberries, letting the mould remain on ice till wanted. Then put it into warm water for an instant, and turn out.

Cherries and nuts.

TEA, OR LUNCH.

Radishes, cucumbers, cold veal, potted fish, broiled smoked salmon, muffins, rolls, sponge cake, strawberries. Tea.

TUESDAY.

Breakfast.— Cold birds, omelet, minced salt fish, cream toast, radishes, water-cresses, rolls, tea and coffee, strawberries.

DINNER.

Gumbo Soup.

Trout.

Roast Veal, with asparagus, lettuce, peas, and potatoes.

Pigeons, with Peas.—Put the pigeons into a stewpan with a little butter, just to stiffen; then take them out, put some small slices of bacon into the pan, give a fine color, draw them, and add a spoonful of flour to the butter; then put in the pigeons and bacon, moisten by degrees with gravy, and bring it to the consistency of sauce; boil it; season with parsley, young onions, and let it simmer; when half done put in a quart of peas; shake them often; and when ready thicken the peas with flour and butter. There should be no gravy left.

Dessert.

Quaking Pudding.—Scald 1 qt. cream (or milk); and when almost cold add 4 eggs well beaten, 1½ spoonfuls flour, some nutmeg, and sugar; tie it close in a buttered cloth; boil 1 hour, and serve with wine sauce.

Crème au Marasquin.—Whip a pint of cream until it thickens, add powdered sugar, a glass of maraschino, and 1 oz. isinglass dissolved in water. The latter must be liquid, but cold.

Strawberries and cream, nuts.

TEA, OR LUNCH.

Cold boiled ham, cucumbers, dried beef with cream biscuit, rolls, strawberries, bread, cake. Tea and cho colate.

WEDNESDAY.

Breakfast.—Minced veal, pickled shad roes, potted game, corn muffins, dry toast, radishes, rolls, scrambled eggs. Tea and coffee.

DINNER.

Mutton Broth.

Baked Pike, caper sauce.

Mutton Pillan, with peas, beans, and potatoes. Take ½ lb. neck of mutton, boil it well, then cut it into small

pieces, and fry it in butter; then let it simmer ½ an hour with 2 cups boiled rice, a few cloves, a little cinnamon, and some cardamoms.

Squabs, roasted.

Dessert.

Plum Pudding, not rich.—Four oz. each of grated bread, suet, and stoned raisins, mix with 2 well-beaten eggs, 4 spoonfuls of milk, and a little salt. Boil 4 hours. A spoonful of brandy, sugar, and nutmeg, in melted butter, may be used as sauce.

Raspberry Cream.—Boil 1 oz. isinglass in 1½ pts. milk; strain through a hair sieve; boil 1½ pts. cream; when cool add ½ pt. raspberry juice to it; then add the milk, stir well, sweeten, and add a glass of brandy. Whisk it till nearly cold, then put in a mould.

Strawberries and nuts.

TEA, OR LUNCH.

Cold tongue, miroton of veal, cucumbers, radishes, strawberries, pound cake, waffles, toast, rolls, tea and chocolate.

THURSDAY.

Breakfast.—Boiled chicken, clam fritters, muffins, steam toast, hot brown bread, cucumbers, strawberries, tea and coffee, boiled eggs.

DINNER.

Tomato Soup.

Lobster.

Roast Beef, with peas, lima beans, and potatoes.

Rissoles.—Pound cold meat, season, and mix with a little good gravy and butter. Roll paste into oval pieces, lay a spoonful on one end, double it over, press the edges together, and scallop them. Brush over with yolk of egg, and fry brown.

Dessert.

Cherry Pie.

Orange Butter.—Boil 6 eggs hard, beat them in a mortar with 2 oz. fine sugar, 3 oz. butter, and 2 oz. blanched almonds, beaten to a paste; moisten with orange-flower water, and when all is mixed rub it through a colander on a dish. Serve with sweet biscuits.

Strawberries, pine-apple, and nuts.

TEA, OR LUNCH.

Potted shrimps, dried chipped beef, milk toast, rolls, corn pone, strawberries, radishes, chocolate.

FRIDAY.

Breakfast.—Cold roast beef, smelts, omelet, chipped potatoes, rice cakes, Graham bread, water cresses, radishes, cucumbers, tea and coffee.

Dinner.

Soup à la Bisque.

Fresh Mackerel.

Roast Lamb, with peas, asparagus, tomatoes, and lettuce.

Sweetbreads.

Lobster Pie.—Cut 2 boiled lobsters in pieces, and lay in a dish; beat the spawn in a mortar; put the shells on to boil in some water, with 3 spoonfuls of vinegar, pepper, salt, and some mace. A large piece of butter rolled in flour must be added when the good is obtained. Pour into the dish strained, strew in some crumbs, and put a paste over all. Bake only till the paste is done.

Dessert.

Rhubarb Pie.

Lemon Syllabub.—Grate the peel of a lemon with *lump sugar*, and dissolve the sugar in $\frac{3}{4}$ pt. of wine; add the juice of half a lemon, and $\frac{1}{4}$ pt. cream. Whisk the whole until properly thick, and put into glasses.

Strawberries, cherries, and bonbons.

Tea, or Lunch

Kidney Toast.—(Take cold veal kidneys, cut in small pieces; pound the fat in a mortar, with salt, pepper, and

a boiled onion. Bind all together with beaten whites of eggs, heap it on toast, cover with yolks beaten, sprinkle with bread crumbs, and bake in the oven.) Salt fish broiled, cold ham, raised biscuit, corn-bread, fruit, cucumbers, and radishes. Lemon cheese-cakes.—(Mix 4 oz. sifted lump sugar, with 4 oz. butter; then add yolks of 2 and white of 1 egg, the rind of 3 lemons chopped fine and the juice of $1\frac{1}{2}$, 1 Savoy biscuit, some blanched almonds, and 3 spoonfuls of brandy. Bake in patty pans.) Tea and cocoa.

SATURDAY.

Breakfast.—Broiled fresh salmon, beefsteak, fried potatoes, cream toast, Graham biscuit, potted tongue, rolls, tea and coffee.

DINNER.

Bean Soup.

Soles, fried.

Boiled Leg of Mutton, with lettuce, peas, spinach, and potatoes.

Beefsteaks, with mushrooms.

Chicken Patties.

Dessert.

Sweetmeat Pudding.—Cover a dish with thin puff paste, and lay in it 1 oz. each of candied lemon, orange,

and citron, sliced thin. Beat the yolks of 8 and whites of 2 eggs, and mix with 8 oz. butter warmed, and some white sugar. Pour all over the sweetmeats, and bake 1 hour in a moderate oven.

Flemish Cream.—Dissolve ½ oz. isinglass in 1 pt. water, strain it to ¼ pt cream; add 1 glass brandy, and whisk to a light froth. Put in a mould.

Cherries and candied fruits.

Tea, or Lunch.

Cold lamb, sandwiches of ham, sardines, waffles, dry toast, rolls, cucumbers, strawberries, small pound-cakes, tea.

SUNDAY.

Breakfast.—Broiled kidneys, with tomato sauce, cold veal, scrambled eggs, Graham bread, gems, rolls, bread, tea and coffee, radishes.

Dinner.

Asparagus Soup.—To 2 qts. of good beef or veal broth, put 4 onions, 2 turnips, and some sweet herbs, with the white parts of a hundred young asparagus. If large, half the quantity will do. Let them simmer till tender enough to rub through a tammy, then strain and season, adding boiled tops of asparagus.

Boiled Salmon.

Chickens à la Carmelite, with peas, beans, and potatoes. Put a piece of butter, size of a walnut, in a stew-pan; as it melts dredge in flour, and when well mixed add a teacup of milk. Cut up the chickens and add them, with pepper, an onion, and mace. Stew till tender, adding milk and water, if too dry. Take out the chickens, and cover with chopped parsley and lemon-juice mixed; thicken the sauce, and add a glass of white-wine.

Beefsteak, broiled.

Dessert.

Mother Eve's Pudding.—Grate ¾ lb. bread; mix with same quantity chopped suet, the same of apples and currants; mix with these 4 eggs, and the rind of half a lemon shred fine. Boil in a shape 3 hours, and serve with sauce.

French Flummery.—Boil slowly 2 oz. isinglass shavings in a quart of cream, 15 minutes. Stir, and sweeten with loaf sugar; add a spoonful of rose-water, and one of orange-flower water. Strain into a form.

Cherries, strawberries, and nuts.

TEA, OR LUNCH.

Ham cake, cold corned beef, minced salt fish, crackers and cheese, toast, corn bannock, biscuit, macaroons, strawberries, cucumbers, tea.

JULY.

MONDAY.

Breakfast.—Sweetbreads fried, potted fish, raw tomatoes sliced, fried potatoes, cucumbers, cream toast, rolls, water-cresses. Tea and coffee.

Dinner.

Vegetable Soup.—Veal or beef broth, with all sorts of vegetables cut small.

Boiled Codfish, with sauce.

Boiled Chickens.—With tomatoes, potatoes roasted, peas, and green corn.

Beefsteak Pudding.—Take 1½ lb. of the inside of a sirloin, beat it tender, cut thin, and divide into small slices, with 2 kidneys. Season with pepper, salt, and chopped parsley, roll in paste, and boil 3 hours. When done, have ready strong beef-gravy, with mushroom ketchup in it, make a hole in the paste, and pour it into the pudding.

Dessert.

Cherry Pudding.

Delicate dish.—Beat whites of eggs with currant jelly, to a solid froth, and serve with cream and sugar.

Raspberries, cherries, and nuts.

TEA, OR LUNCH.

Cold tongue, sardines, veal cake, cucumbers, raspberries, muffins, toast, bread, cake, cherries. Tea.

TUESDAY.

Breakfast.—Spring chickens, fried, with cream sauce; dry toast, rice cakes, raw tomatoes dressed, cold corned beef, cucumbers, fruit, tea and coffee, rolls.

DINNER.

Tomato Soup.—Beef soup with tomatoes pulped or shredded, and well seasoned.

Salmon, boiled.

Fillet of Veal, stuffed, with beans, tomatoes, and potato loaves. Mash the potatoes without milk, make them into conical loaves with butter to hold them, and brown under the meat.

Rice Croquettes.—Boil 6 oz. rice in broth, let it stew till done, then work it well with a spoonful of white sauce, 2 of grated cheese, and a little pepper. When of proper consistence, make the rice into shapes, hollowing them in the hand like cups; then fill them with any kind of minced meat, close the end to contain it, and cover well with the following mixture: 2 spoonfuls grated cheese, with 4 of bread crumbs, stuck together with yolks of eggs; fry a light brown.

Dessert.

Raspberry Pie.

Soft Boiled Custard.

Cherries, and bonbons.

TEA, OR LUNCH.

Cold chicken pie, broiled smoked salmon, raspberries and cherries, waffles, corn bread, bread, cucumbers, fruit-cake.

WEDNESDAY.

Breakfast.—Lamb cutlet breaded, cold ham, omelet with parsley, steam toast, rolls, bread, corn pone, cucumbers, and fruit.

DINNER.

Green Corn Soup.—Veal broth with 2 ears of green corn grated into it.

Bluefish Broiled.

Roast Chickens, with corn, beans, peas, and potato omelet. Mashed potato, mixed with 4 eggs, well seasoned, and fried.

Calves' Brains.—Cut prepared brains into slices ½ an inch thick; flour, egg, and bread-crumb them; fry a nice brown, and serve with tomato sauce.

Dessert.

Gooseberry Pudding. — Stew gooseberries till they will pulp, then press a pint of the juice through a coarse sieve, and beat it with 3 eggs well beaten, 1½ oz. butter, and enough sugar to sweeten it. Add a few bread-crumbs, and bake in dish with a crust round it.

Almond Custard.—Boil 2 or 3 bitter almonds in a pint of milk or cream, with a stick of cinnamon, a piece of lemon peel, and 8 lumps of sugar; let it simmer; then strain it, and stir till cold. Add the yolks of 6 eggs beaten, 1 oz. of sweet almonds beaten fine in rose water, and stir over the fire till of a proper thickness. Do not boil. Raspberries, cherries, and chocolate caramels.

TEA, OR LUNCH.

Broiled ham, dried beef chipped, biscuit, crackers and cheese, cucumbers stewed. (Peel and slice thick, stew with salt and pepper, and simmer slowly in a little broth or butter; add a little flour before serving.) Raspberries, sponge cake, anchovy, toast. Tea and chocolate.

THURSDAY.

Breakfast —Minced salmon with cream, cold chicken, corn muffins, rolls, toast, cucumbers, and fruit. Tea and coffee.

Dinner.

Summer Soup.—Take 2 cucumbers, 12 onions, 3 po tatoes, 1 lettuce, and a head of white cabbage; fry together in butter; then stew 3 hours in 3 pts. stock; add a little mint, parsley, and a pint of green peas; let it stew 2 hours more; press it through a seive, and thicken with butter and flour.

Trout.

Roast Lamb, mint sauce, with corn, peas, potatoes stewed, and maccaroni with cheese.

Chicken Pudding. — Fricassee 2 young chickens, season with mushroom powder, mace, and salt. Make gravy of the giblets and a bit of meat, put 2 spoonfuls into the paste. Boil 2 hours, and put the rest of the gravy into or under the pudding.

Dessert.

Rice Custards, Strawberry Jelly. — Boil $\frac{3}{4}$ lb. loaf sugar in a pint of water 20 minutes, pour hot over a quart of picked strawberries, and let them stand over night. Clarify $2\frac{1}{2}$ oz. isinglass in a pint of water, drain the syrup from the berries, adding the juice of a lemon. When the isinglass is nearly cold mix all together, add more sugar if wanted, and put it into moulds. Set on the ice.

Raspberries and almonds.

Tea, or Lunch.

Potted fish, broiled kidneys, minced salt fish, *Vegetable Ragout.* (Cut any kinds of cold vegetables into slices, put in a stewpan with pepper, salt, a little broth, and a piece of butter, and stir till quite hot). Cucumbers and fruit, corn pone, rolls, toast. *Coffee Cakes.* (1 lb. flour. ¼ lb. butter, do. sugar, 1 egg, 1 oz. caraway seeds; mix with warm milk and a spoonful rose water; roll out thin, and bake on little tins.) Tea and chocolate.

FRIDAY.

Breakfast.—Broiled beefsteak, trout, stewed potatoes, pickled salmon, hot brown bread, rolls, tea and coffee, *Kedgeree.*—Boil 2 tablespoonfuls of rice, add any fish previously cooked (salmon preferable), nicely picked; beat up an egg well, and stir it in just before serving.

Dinner.

Macaroni Soup.

Flounders.

Fillet of Beef, with corn, peas, beans, and tomatoes.

Corned Beef.

Dessert.

Almond Pudding.—Take 2½ oz. bread crumbs, and steep them in a pint of cream, (or milk), then pound ½

pint of blanched almonds to a paste, with some water beat the yolks of 6 eggs, and whites of 3; mix all together, and add 3 oz. sugar, and 1 of beaten butter Thicken over the fire, and bake in a puff paste.

Blancmange.

Raspberries, cherries, and nuts.

TEA, OR LUNCH.

Cold lamb, sardines, omelet, fried bacon, pâté de foie gras, waffles, toast, berries, cucumbers, pound cake, chocolate.

SATURDAY.

Breakfast.—Veal cutlets, potted game, dropped eggs on toast, steamed toast, broiled ham, rolls, tea and coffee, fruit.

DINNER.

Rice Soup.—Take white stock, season it, and use 1½ lbs. of rice to 2 qts. of broth.

Soles.

Boiled Mutton, caper sauce, with roasted potatoes, peas, and corn.

Chicken Patties.

Dessert.

Lemon Jelly.—Clarify 1½ oz. isinglass in a pint of water; add ½ lb. loaf sugar, and the rind of 2 lemons,

cut thin. Strain the juice of 4 lemons, and stir into the cool sugar and isinglass. Take out the peel, and pour into forms.

Berry Pie.

Fruit and nuts.

TEA, OR LUNCH.

Cold corned beef, broiled mackerel, toasted cheese, muffins, toast, rolls, berries, Harrison cake, tea.

SUNDAY.

Breakfast.—Codfish balls, broiled fresh salmon boiled eggs, gems, fruit, rolls, bread, tea and coffee.

DINNER.

Chicken Broth.

Salmon.

Roast Beef, with potatoes, peas, tomatoes, and beans.

Sweetbreads, fried.

Dessert.

Arrowroot Pudding.

Snow Cream.—Put to a quart of cream the whites of 3 eggs, well beaten, 4 spoonfuls of sweet wine, sugar to taste, and a bit of lemon-peel. Whip to a froth, take out the peel, and serve in a dish.

Early apples, and nuts.

TEA, OR LUNCH.

Salt fish broiled, cold mutton, cheese, corn bread, Turk's cap, raspberries and cherries, cucumbers, and radishes, toast, ham cake, chocolate cakes, tea.

AUGUST.

MONDAY.

Breakfast.—Broiled halibut, cold tongue, stewed potatoes, raw sliced tomatoes, omelet, rolls, dry toast, cucumbers, fruit, tea and coffee.

DINNER.

Vegetable Marrow Soup.—Boil the marrow and strain, then add to beef or veal broth, thicken with 2 spoonfuls of arrowroot, and a little cream. Do not allow it to boil after the latter is added.

Stewed Codfish.—Cut in slices an inch thick, lay in a large stewpan, and season with salt, pepper, a bunch of herbs, an onion, $\frac{1}{2}$ pt. white-wine, and $\frac{1}{4}$ pt. water. Cover close, and let it simmer five minutes, then squeeze in the juice of a lemon, a piece of butter size of an egg, rolled in flour, and a blade of mace. Let it stew slowly till done, and take out the herbs and onions.

Chicken Pillan, with squash, corn, beans, and potatoes.

Baked Calves' Head.—Wash the head, and place in a large earthen dish, on large iron skewers, laid across the top of the dish; cover it with bread crumbs, grated nutmeg, chopped sweet herbs, a little fine-cut lemon, and flour; thick pieces of butter in the eyes, and all over the head, then flour it again; put in the dish a piece of beef, cut small; herbs, an onion, pepper, mace, cloves, a pint of water, and bake the head a fine brown. Boil the brains with sage, separately. When the head is done enough take it out, and set by the fire to keep warm, then stir all in the dish together, and boil in a stewpan; strain it off, put it in the saucepan again with a piece of butter rolled in flour, the brains and sage chopped fine, a spoonful of catsup, and two spoonfuls of wine. Beat well together, and serve in the dish with the head. Leave the tongue in the head.

Dessert.

Baked Custard.

Whipt Cream.—A qt. cream, the whites of 4 eggs, ½ pt. white-wine, ¼ lb. powdered sugar, 12 drops essence of lemon. Beat to a froth, and put in glasses with a little jelly in the bottom.

Peaches and melons.

Tea, or Lunch.

Cold tongue, minced beef on toast, peaches and cream, cucumbers, corn pone, boiled rice, dry toast, tea lemonade.

TUESDAY.

Breakfast.—Corned beef hash, cold roast chicken, boiled eggs, steam toast, raised biscuit, lettuce, huckleberries, rolls, coffee and tea.

Dinner.

Giblet Soup.

Baked Pike.—Stuff the pike with grated bread, 2 hard boiled eggs chopped fine, a little nutmeg, lemon peel, and the roe or liver chopped; then lay it in the dish, with the tail in the mouth; put pieces of butter all over it, and sprinkle with flour. Garnish with toast and lemon, and serve with melted butter.

Boiled Corned Beef, with corn, squash, beans, and baked potatoes.

Duck, with Peas.—Put the duck in a deep stewpan, with a piece of butter, (singe it first,) flour it, and turn it two or three times, then pour out all the fat. Put to the duck a pint of good gravy, do. peas, 2 lettuces cut small, sweet herbs, pepper and salt; cover close and stew half an hour. When well done thicken with a little

butter and flour, shake all together three or four minutes, and serve in a dish, the duck with the sauce poured over it.

Dessert.

Cream Pudding.—Boil 1 qt. of cream with a blade of mace, and half a nutmeg, grated; let it cool; beat the yolks of 8 eggs, and whites of 3, and mix them with a spoonful of flour, ¼ lb. blanched almonds, beaten with rose-water, and by degrees mix in the cream. Tie in a thick cloth well floured, boil half an hour, and when done throw fine sugar and melted butter over it.

Peaches and Cream.

Melons, plums, and bonbons.

TEA, OR LUNCH.

Broiled smoked salmon, lobster salad, corn pone, Graham biscuit, blackberries, peaches and cream, macaroons, and small sponge cakes, dry toast, tea and chocolate.

WEDNESDAY.

Breakfast.—Broiled spring chicken, brown bread, cream toast, cold ham, potted fish, rolls, scrambled eggs, blackberries, cucumbers, tea and coffee.

DINNER.

Codling Soup.—Take the meat from a young cod, pound it in a mortar, with some shred parsley, and bread crumbs soaked in milk; make the mixture up into balls with an egg, seasoned well. Stew down 2 or 3 codlings or haddocks into broth, strain it, pulp the meat through a sieve, boil it with parsley roots, thicken, and serve with the forcemeat balls.

Broiled Bluefish.

Roast Beef, with corn, egg plant, squash, and rice.

Pigeon Fricassée.—Cut 8 pigeons into small pieces, and put in a stewpan with 1 pt. water and same of claret. Season with salt, pepper, mace, an onion, a bunch of herbs, a piece of butter rolled in flour; cover close, and let them stew till there is just enough for sauce; then take out the onion and herbs, beat up the yolks of 3 eggs, push the meat to one side, and stir them into the gravy. Keep stirring till sauce is thick, then put the meat in a dish, and pour over it.

Dessert.

Charlotte Russe.

Ice Cream.—Newport receipt.—1 qt. new milk, with cream to suit, 2 tablespoonfuls cornstarch, yolk of 1 egg, sugar, and flavoring to taste. Wet the starch in a little of the milk, mix with the egg, and stir into the milk boiling hot. When cool, it is ready for the freezer.

Peaches, plums, and hot-house grapes.

Tea, or Lunch.

Cold veal, sardines, Boston crackers, with tomato cat sup, cream toast, rice cakes, blackberries and huckleberries, pound-cake, rolls, gems. Tea.

THURSDAY.

Breakfast.—Cold roast beef, sweetbreads fried, raw tomatoes, muffins, potted tongue, rolls and bread, berries, cucumbers. Tea and coffee.

Dinner.

Green Corn Soup.

Baked Cod's Head.—Lay the head in a buttered pan, with a bundle of herbs, an onion stuck with cloves, 3 or 4 blades of mace, ½ spoonful black pepper, a small piece lemon-peel, a bruised nutmeg, a small bit of horseradish, and a quart of water. Flour the head, and stick butter and bread crumbs over it. Bake it well, and lay it in the dish it is to be served in, covered close, and placed over hot water. Boil the liquor 3 or 4 minutes, strain it, and add a gill of wine, 2 spoonfuls of catsup, 1 of mushrooms pickled, and ¼ lb. butter rolled in flour. Stir till it is thick, and pour into the dish. Stick pieces of fried bread round the dish, and in the head.

Boiled Lamb, with baked tomatoes, corn, lima beans, and potatoes.

Brown Fricassée.—Cut chickens in small pieces, and rub with yolks of eggs; then roll them in grated bread and nutmeg, and fry a fine brown with butter. Pour off the butter, and add ½ pt. brown gravy, 1 glass white wine, a few mushrooms, salt and pepper, and a little butter rolled in flour. When thick, dish it for the table.

Dessert.

Blackberry Pudding.—A good batter mixed with the fruit, boiled 1 hour, and served with wine sauce.

Kisses.—Beat the whites of 4 eggs till stiff, then stir in gradually (one spoonful at a time) 1 lb powdered sugar, and add 12 drops essence of lemon. Lay a wet sheet of paper on a square pan, and drop at equal distances a teaspoonful of stiff currant jelly with a little sugar and egg *under* each one. Then pile the froth so as to cover each lump of jelly, as round as possible. Set in a cool oven, and when colored they are done. Place the two bottoms together, lay them lightly on a sieve, and dry in a cool oven till they stick together.

Apples, peaches, and melons.

Tea, or Lunch.

Cold miroton of veal, dried beef stewed in cream, waffles, crackers and cheese, bread and toast, berries and radishes, Indian pound cake. Tea and chocolate.

FRIDAY.

Breakfast. — Codfish fried, chipped potatoes, cold tongue, minced lamb, omelet, corn bread, brown bread, berries, rolls. Tea and coffee.

Dinner.

Lobster Soup.—Make a stock of small fish, take the meat from 1 or 2 lobsters, and cut in small pieces; lay it aside, and break the shell, boiling it gently several hours with the stock. Make the coral into force-meat balls, with a small piece of stock fish, bread crumbs, parsley, and egg. When the stock is done, strain, and thicken with butter and flour. Warm the lobster in it, and serve with the balls. It may be seasoned delicately with any sauce.

Boiled Soles, melted butter.

Roast Veal, with peas, beans, and potatoes à la mâitre d'hôtel.

Neat's Tongue Fricassée.—Boil the tongues till tender, peel, and cut in thin slices; fry them in fresh butter; then pour it out, add enough gravy for sauce, herbs, an onion, pepper, salt, mace, and a glass of white-wine; simmer all ½ an hour; take out the tongue, and strain the gravy; then put both into the pan again with yolks of 2 eggs beaten, a piece of butter size of a walnut, rolled in flour, and a little nutmeg. Shake together 5 minutes, and serve.

Dessert.

Huckleberry Pie.

Apple Soufflé. — Scald and sweeten the fruit, beat through a sieve, and put in a dish. Pour a rich custard 2 inches deep over it; when cold, whip the whites of the eggs to a froth, and lay in rough pieces on the custard; sift fine sugar over it, and put in a slack oven for a short time.

Peaches and melons.

TEA, OR LUNCH.

Ham sandwiches, salad, tongue, potted game, corn muffins, biscuit, jelly tarts, berries, cup cake. Tea.

SATURDAY.

Breakfast.—Beefsteak, cold snipe, raw tomatoes, dropped eggs on toast, milk toast, berries, cucumbers, tea and coffee, rolls.

DINNER.

Oxcheek Soup.—Take the meat from half an ox-head, and put in a pan with 3 sliced, fried onions, herbs, allspice, pepper, and salt, a large spoonful each. Lay the bones close on the meat, and put 1 qt. water to every pound cut meat. Cover the pan with coarse brown paper, tied closely, and let it stand in the oven 4 hours. When done, take out the bones, and pour the

soup and meat into a pan. When it is to be used, take off the fat, warm the soup, and cut the meat into pieces not larger than a mouthful. Make the brains into forcemeat balls, and season highly with walnut catsup and cayenne.

Stewed Terrapin.—Boil them 10 minutes, and then take them out, remove the outer shells, and put back again. Then boil till the claws are tender. Take them out of the inner shell, taking care not to break the gall, which must be separated from the liver and thrown away; also the spongy part. Cut them in small pieces, put in a stewpan with salt, pepper, and some butter. After they have stewed a few minutes, put in a wine-glass of water to each terrapin. When they have stewed 10 minutes add butter rolled in flour, and 1 glass white-wine to each one. Stew 5 minutes more, and take off. Add beaten yolks of eggs (1 yolk to 2 terrapins) well stirred in, cover tightly, let it stand 5 minutes, and serve in a deep dish.

Lamb Chops, breaded; with succotash (corn and beans), squash, and potatoes.

Lamb's Head, stewed.—Wash, and lay in water 1 hour; take out the brains, and with a sharp penknife take out the tongue and bones, so as to leave the meat whole; chop together 2 lbs. veal, 2 lbs. beef-suet, thyme, lemon peel; nutmeg grated, 2 rolls grated and yolks of 4 eggs. Tie the

head with thread, and stew 2 hours in 2 qts. gravy. Make the mixture into balls, and fry in dripping; beat the brains with parsley, and fry in little cakes; strain the gravy, and season with catsup, and serve the head with the fried balls and brains around it.

Dessert.

Soft Boiled Custard, frozen; with sliced peaches, curds and whey.—Wash very clean in cold water a piece of rennet 2 inches square; wipe it dry, and pour on it lukewarm water enough to cover it. Let it stand all night, then take it out, and stir the water into a quart of warm milk. Set the milk in a warm place till it becomes a firm curd —then on the ice. Eat with wine, sugar, and nutmeg.

Melons, plums, and nuts.

TEA, OR LUNCH.

Ham cake, cold beef, sardines, pâté de foie gras, wine jelly, sponge cake, berries, steamed toast, rolls, Indian bannock. Tea.

SUNDAY.

Breakfast.—Broiled salmon, cold corned beef, mutton chops, raw tomatoes, gems, rolls, bread, berries, Indian griddle-cakes.

Dinner.

Tomato Soup.—Chicken or veal broth thickened, with tomato pulp in it.

Perch.

Broiled Quail, with egg-plant, squash, corn, and tomatoes.

Ragout of Veal.—Cut a neck of veal into steaks, flatten with a rolling-pin, season with salt, pepper, and spice, lard them with bacon, lemon-peel, thyme, and dip them in yolks of eggs. Put in a pan with ½ pt. strong gravy, and stew leisurely; season high, and add mushrooms and pickles, also add a glass of wine.

Dessert.

Blackberry Pie.

Lemon Pudding.—Grate the rind of a fresh lemon, and squeeze in the juice. Stir together ¼ lb. powdered sugar, and ¼ lb. butter to a cream; beat 3 eggs well and add; mix all together with a tablespoonful of wine and brandy, and a teaspoonful of rose-water; beat all very hard. Make a paste of 5 oz. flour, and ¼ lb. butter; cover a buttered soup-plate, put in the pudding, and bake a light brown.

Peaches and grapes.

Tea, or Lunch.

Boiled ham, cold birds, crackers, raw tomatoes, waf-

fles, dry toast, biscuit, peaches and cream, berries, German cake—from a Hungarian Countess (1 lb. sugar, 1 lb. beaten almonds, 1 lb. citron beaten, 1 oz. mace, cinnamon and cloves mixed. Make as stiff as pie-crust, roll out an inch thick, cut in shapes, and glaze with sugar and water. It will keep a year.) Tea and chocolate.

SEPTEMBER.

MONDAY.

Breakfast.—Cold chicken pie, broiled ham, scrambled eggs, fried potatoes, rolls, cream toast, berries and peaches, tea and coffee.

Dinner.

Soup à la Creci.—Grate the red part of 12 carrots, slice 4 onions, a turnip, 2 lettuces, a piece of lean ham, a few sprigs of parsley and thyme, and a few allspice; put them all in a stewpan with a piece of butter; let it simmer $\frac{1}{2}$ an hour, then fill up with stock, and allow it to boil gently 2 hours; put in the crumb of 2 rolls, and rub the whole through a tamis. Let it boil, skim it, add salt to taste, and a small lump of sugar. Put a little boiled rice in the tureen.

Cutlets of Sole.—Cut the sole in pieces crosswise, dry flour, egg, and crumb them; fry crisp, and dish with parsley in the centre.

Green Goose Roasted, with roast potatoes, squash, corn and tomatoes.

Stewed Beef.—Stew the brisket in water enough to cover it; when tender take out the bones, and skim the fat; strain the gravy, and add a glass of wine and a small muslin bag of spice; have ready boiled vegetables, with mushrooms, cut them in shapes, and lay around and upon the beef. Pour the gravy over it.

Dessert.

Bread-and-butter Pudding—Make a custard of 1 egg, and ½ pt. milk, by boiling the milk with lemon peel, and sugar, putting it on the fire with the egg to thicken; butter slices of bread or roll, and soak them an hour or two in the custard, then lay them in a dish with currants, and powdered sugar between each layer. Then pour over it another ½ pt. milk beaten with 2 eggs, and bake.

Crème au caramel.

Peaches and pears.

TEA, OR LUNCH.

Cold mutton, tongue, Turk's cap, muffins, potted fish, cracker milk toast, jelly cake, berries, peaches, dry toast tea.

TUESDAY.

Breakfast.—Beef hash, pickled tripe, stewed potatoes, corn bannock, rolls, bread, raw tomatoes, berries, and fruit.

DINNER.

Potato Soup.

Bluefish.

Roast Lamb, with beans, tomatoes, potatoes, and corn fritters. Grate corn into a batter, and fry on a griddle.

Beef's Heart Roasted.

Dessert.

Baked Batter Pudding.—Make a batter with 6 oz. flour, 1 gill milk and 4 eggs; make it the consistency of cream with more milk, and bake in cups. Cold sauce.

Almond Croquantes.—Blanch and dry 1 lb. almonds, pound in a mortar with 1 lb. powdered sugar, rub through a wire sieve, then rub in $\frac{3}{4}$ lb. butter, grated rind $\frac{1}{2}$ a lemon, and yolks 3 eggs. Make into a paste, cut in shapes, and bake in a quick oven. When done dip them in sugar boiled to a syrup.

Pears, plums, and grapes.

TEA, OR LUNCH.

Cold goose, dried beef chipped, waffles, raw tomatoes, steam toast, berries, breadcake. Tea.

WEDNESDAY.

Breakfast.—Broiled kidneys, cold lamb, stewed tomatoes, boiled eggs, Graham biscuit, rolls, milk toast, baked potatoes. Tea and coffee.

DINNER.

Beef Soup.

Roast Lobster.—Remove the shells from boiled lobsters, lay them before the fire, and baste them with butter till they have a fine froth. Dish them with plain melted butter.

Bouilli, with corn, beans, egg-plant, and potatoes. Take from 4 to 6 lbs. of rump of beef, and allow 1 pt. cold water to every pound of meat; let it *simmer gently* four or five hours, with a bunch of herbs, and an onion stuck with cloves; then strain off the soup, leaving enough for sauce, to be served with the meat. Season with catsup, thicken, and add vegetables cut in shapes.

Boned Lamb.—Bone the shoulder, stuff it with fine force-meat, and skewer it in a nice shape. Put it in a closely covered stewpan with 2 oz. butter, and a teacup of water, until the gravy is drawn; cut the brisket in pieces, and stew them in gravy thickened with milk and egg; thicken the gravy of the shoulder with any vegetables in season. Place the shoulder in a dish with its gravy, and lay the brisket with white sauce around it.

Dessert.

Blackberry Pie.

Peach Pudding.—Scald till soft 12 peaches; put grated bread into a pint of boiling milk, and when half cold add 4 oz sugar, the yolks of 4 eggs beaten, and 1 glass of white wine. Mix with the pulp of the fruit, and bake in a paste.

Pears and grapes.

TEA, OR LUNCH.

Sardines, broiled ham, cold chicken, crackers and cheese, corn bread, buttered toast, berries, Harrison cake. Tea.

THURSDAY.

Breakfast.—Liver hash, stewed mushrooms, cold ham, corn pone, raw tomatoes, cucumbers, fruit, fried potatoes, griddle-cakes, rolls. Tea and coffee.

DINNER.

Green Corn Soup.

Blackfish.

Roast Chickens, with beans, baked tomatoes, and potatoes.

Co'd Tongue.

Dessert.

Huckleberry Pudding.—Put ½ lb. flour into a pan with a little salt, and add gently ½ pt. milk. Beat the whites

of 4 eggs to a solid froth, and add just as the batter is to be used. Make it of a proper consistency with milk, and stir in the fruit. It may be baked or boiled.

Custard Cream of Chocolate.

Peaches, plums, and grapes.

Tea, or Lunch.

Cold boned lamb, lobster salad, muffins, toast, gingerbread, berries and peaches, sponge cake, crackers and cheese. Tea and chocolate.

FRIDAY.

Breakfast.—Broiled whitefish, cold tongue, dropped eggs, chipped potatoes, sliced onions and cucumbers, milk toast, rolls, berries.

Dinner.

Eel Soup.—Skin 3 lbs. small eels; bone 1 or 2, cut in little pieces, and fry lightly with a bit of butter, and parsley. Put to the remainder 3 qts. water, a crust of bread, 3 blades mace, an onion, some whole pepper, and a bunch of herbs. Cover, and stew till the fish breaks from the bones; then strain it off, pound to a paste, and pass through a sieve. Cut some toasted bread into dice, pour the soup on it, add the scallops of eel, and

serve: ¼ pt. cream or milk with a teaspoonful of flour rubbed smooth in it, is a great improvement.

Baked Codfish.

Leg of Mutton, stuffed; with corn, squash, and potatoes.

Stewed Larks.

Dessert.

Rolypoly Pudding —Make a rich paste of butter and flour, as light as possible. Roll it thin, 8 or 10 inches wide, and as long as you please; then spread a thick layer of fruit or jam upon it, leaving an inch of the edges bare. Then roll it round, lapping it over to secure the fruit. Wrap in a floured cloth, and boil 2 or 3 hours.

Imperial Cream.

Melons and pears.

TEA, OR LUNCH.

Cold pigeon pie, pickled herring, baked potatoes, rusk, steam toast, berries and fruit, crackers and cheese, tarts. Tea and chocolate.

SATURDAY.

Breakfast.—Codfish balls, stewed eels, potted game, potatoes à la maître d'hôtel, rolls, brown bread, fruit. Tea and coffee.

Dinner.

Soupe à la Julienne.

Haddock, boiled.

Roast Veal, with corn, limas beans, squash, and potatoes.

Pilau of Rabbit.—Cut up the rabbit; pound an onion in mortar, extract the juice, and mix it with a saltspoon of ground ginger, a teaspoonful of salt, and the juice of a lemon. Rub this into the meat; cut up 2 onions in slices, and fry them in ¼ lb. butter; when brown take them out, put in the rabbit, and let them stew together. Have ½ lb. rice half boiled in broth; put the meat and all into a jar, with ½ pint milk, whole pepper, ¼ doz. cloves, and a little salt. Secure the mouth, and bake until done, adding a little broth to moisten if necessary.

Dessert.

Huckleberry Pudding.

Calf's foot Jelly.—Boil a cow-heel in 2 qts. of water for 7 or 8 hours: take every particle of fat and sediment from the jelly; when cold put to it a pint of wine, the juice of 3 lemons, and rind of 2 pared thin, 6 oz. sugar, the whites and shells of 3 eggs well beaten, and ½ oz. insinglass. Boil 20 minutes, and after adding a teacup of cold water, boil 5 minutes more; then cover close, and

let it stand ½ an hour to cool; pour through a jelly-bag till clear, and put in a mould on the ice.

Melons, pears, and plums.

Tea, or Lunch.

Cold beef, with tomato catsup, salad, potted fish, tongue corn muffins, dry toast, berries and fruit, cucumbers and radishes, fruit cake. Tea.

SUNDAY.

Breakfast.—Lamb chops, potato cakes, stewed tomatoes, pickled tongue, rolls, gems, berries and fruit. Tea and coffee.

Dinner.

Soup Maigre. — Pare and slice 5 or 6 cucumbers, and add to them the inside of as many lettuces, a sprig of mint, 2 onions, 1½ pts. peas, and a little parsley. Put them into a saucepan with salt and pepper, and ½ lb. butter, to stew gently in their own liquor ½ an hour, then add 2 qts. boiling water, and stew them 2 hours; rub a little flour into a teacup of water, boil 15 or 20 minutes with the rest, and serve it.

Stewed Scallops. — Boil in salt and water (after straining off the liquor), then stew in the liquor, adding butter rolled in flour, cloves, and mace.

Roast Ham, with corn, beans, and tomatoes. Soak

the ham in lukewarm water for a day or two, changing the water often. Roast it slowly before the fire, basting with hot water, and when done dredge it all over with fine bread-crumbs, and brown.

Veal Cutlets, with Rice.—Pound a cupful of rice boiled in milk, with pepper and salt, in a mortar; cold veal in the same way; mix together with yolk of egg, from into cutlets, brush with yolk of egg, and fry them. Cover them with mushrooms pickled, or any piquant sauce.

Dessert.

Soft boiled Custard.

Transparent Pudding.—Beat 8 eggs, put them into a stewpan with ½ lb. powdered sugar, same of butter, and some grated nutmeg. Keep stirring on the fire till it thickens. Put a puff paste round the edge of the dish, pour in the pudding *cool*, and bake in a moderate oven. Add candied orange and citron if you like.

Peaches, melons, and grapes.

TEA, OR LUNCH.

Broiled smoked salmon, cold ham, dried beef, boiled rice, corn bread, toast, berries and fruit, tomatoes dressed, German cake.

OCTOBER.

MONDAY.

Breakfast.—Cold chicken, minced veal on toast, fried scallops, omelet, baked potatoes, corn pone, milk toast, berries. Tea and coffee.

Dinner.

Macaroni Soup.

Halibut.

Roast Woodcock, with squash, egg-plant, tomatoes, and potatoes.

Chicken Pie.

Dessert.

Quince Pudding.

Burnt Cream.

Grapes, pears, and nuts.

Tea, or Lunch.

Ham cake, potted game, sardines, waffles, gems, biscuit, stewed pears, Spanish buns, breadcake. Tea and chocolate.

TUESDAY.

Breakfast.—Broiled liver, cold mutton, tomatoes, fried potatoes, cold woodcock, cracker milk toast, rolls. Tea and coffee.

DINNER.

Oyster Soup.

Boiled Codfish.

Roast Beef, with potatoes, cauliflower, and squash.

Miroton of Veal.

Dessert.

Apple Charlotte.—Pare and slice apples; cut slices of bread and butter; place the latter all around the inside of a buttered pie-dish; then put in a layer of apples sprinkled with chopped lemon peel, and considerable brown sugar; then put in a layer of the bread, and one of apples, repeating till the dish is full. Squeeze over all the juice of lemons, so that it will be well flavored. Cover up the dish with crusts, bake 1¼ hours, remove the crust, and turn out.

Vanilla Cream.

Pears, grapes, and nuts.

TEA, OR LUNCH.

Cold chicken pie, fried oysters, chopped vegetables on toast, peaches and cream, Graham bread, rolls. Tea and chocolate

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WEDNESDAY.

Breakfast. — Minced beef, cold ham, dropped eggs, chipped potatoes, Indian griddle-cakes, rolls. Tea and coffee.

DINNER.

Pea Soup.

Baked Pike.

Boiled Leg of Mutton, caper sauce, with stewed potatoes, cabbage, beans, and spinach.

Sweetbreads, stewed.

Dessert.

Brandy Pudding.

Peach Pie.

Grapes, apples, and almonds.

TEA, OR LUNCH.

Clam fritters, potted game, veal sandwiches, apple sauce, muffins, toast, corn bannock, sponge cake. Tea.

THURSDAY.

Breakfast.—Pickle shad roes, broiled oysters, mutton chops, corn bread, milk toast, rolls. Tea and coffee.

DINNER.

Tomato Soup.

Smelts.

Roast Partridges with squash, egg-plant, and hominy.

Stewed Beef.

Dessert

Arrowroot Pudding.

Baked Custard.

Candied fruits, bonbons, and nuts.

TEA, OR LUNCH.

Pickled oysters, broiled ham, flour griddle-cakes, with sugar and nutmeg, rice balls, stewed plums, jelly cakes tea, toast, crackers and cheese.

FRIDAY.

Breakfast.—Broiled halibut, fried scallops, cold boiled chickens, poached eggs, milk toast of brown bread, muffins, rolls. Tea and coffee.

DINNER.

Vermicelli Soup.

Bluefish.

Roast Pork, with apple-sauce, tomatoes, squash, and potatoes.

Scalloped Oysters.

Dessert.

Apple Pie.

Blancmange.

Grapes, pears, and figs.

TEA, OR LUNCH.

Cold birds, tongue, ham toast, cheese, cream cakes raised biscuit, steam toast, baked sweet apples, fruit cake

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SATURDAY.

Breakfast.—Corned beef hash, cold tongue, potted fish, brown bread, corn pone, rolls. Tea and coffee.

DINNER.

Clam Soup.

Soles

Boiled Chickens, oyster sauce, with potatoes, egg plant, baked potatoes, and squash.

Boiled Tongue.

Dessert.

Damson Pudding.—Take a few spoonfuls from a qt. of milk, and mix into it by degrees 4 spoonfuls flour, 2 of ginger, and a little salt; then add the rest of the milk, and 1 lb. of damsons. Tie it in a wet, floured cloth, and boil 1½ hour; pour over it melted butter and sugar.

Chocolate Cream.

Grapes, pears, and nuts.

TEA, OR LUNCH.

Broiled salt mackerel, cold roast pork, raw oysters, baked pears, muffins, doughnuts, fried bread, rolls, cup-cake. Tea.

SUNDAY.

Breakfast.—Cold roast duck, fried potatoes, hominy, omelet with parsley, minced fresh fish, brown bread milk toast, corn bannock, rolls. Tea and cocoa.

DINNER.

Veal Broth.

Baked Whitefish.

Roast Veal, with cauliflower, spinach, and potatoes

Broiled Snipe.

Dessert.

Rice Pudding.

Lemon Cream.

Oranges, apples, and grapes.

TEA, OR LUNCH.

Chicken patties, potted tongue, sardines, dry toast, crackers and cheese, preserved quinces, Graham biscuit, rolls, macaroons and cocoanut cakes. Tea.

NOVEMBER.

MONDAY.

Breakfast.—Pork steak, cold quail, pickled scallops, baked potatoes, milk tost of brown bread, rolls. Tea and coffee.

Dinner.

Harrico Soup.—Take mutton cutlets, trim, and fry to light brown; then stew in 3 qts. of brown gravy soup till tender. Take 2 carrots, 2 onions, celery cut fine, a glass of port wine, and one of mushroom catsup, and add to the soup, after straining. Cook till all is tender, and thicken with a little butter and flour.

Blackfish, boiled.

Roast Beef, with lima beans, squash, and potatoes.

Spiced Veal.—Two and a half lbs. of veal well chopped, 4 crackers pounded fine, 2 eggs, 2 slices of pork chopped fine, a piece of butter size of an egg, ½ teaspoonful pepper, and same of salt. Put into a shape, cover with bread crumbs, and bake 2 hours.

Dessert.

Carrot Pie.—Boil and strain 6 carrots to a pulp, add 3 pts. milk, 6 eggs, 2 tablespoonfuls butter melted, juice

of ½ a lemon, and grated rind of a whole one. Sweeten and bake in a deep dish.

Sponge Pudding.—Butter a mould thickly, and fill it three parts full of small sponge cakes soaked in wine then fill up the mould with a rich cold custard. Put a buttered paper over the mould, and bake it. Serve with wine sauce.

Plums, pears, and chestnuts.

Tea, or Lunch.

Rice Cakes. (Soak ½ lb. rice over night, boil soft, drain dry, mix ¼ lb. butter with it, and set away to cool. Then stir it into a qt. of milk, stir in ½ pt. flour, and add 6 eggs with salt. Fry thin on a griddle). Cold tongue. *Potted Fish.* (Boil lobsters, shrimps, or any shell-fish, pick out the meat, and put in a stew-pan with a little butter, chopped mushrooms, and a little salt. Simmer gently, then add the yolks of 2 eggs beaten with a cup-full of milk or cream, and a little chopped parsley. Let all stew till of the consistency of paste, then put into a pot, and press down. When cold cover with melted butter, and tie on an oil-skin cover). French rolls, Graham bread, stewed quinces. Tea and coffee.

Cup-cake, with hickory nuts.

TUESDAY.

Breakfast.— Cold turkey, sweetbreads, stewed with mushrooms, buckwheat cakes, wheaten grits with cream, rolls and bread. Coffee.

DINNER.

White Soup.—Take broth made of veal, or white poultry, cut the meat off, and put the bone back, adding 2 or 3 shank-bones of mutton, and ¼ lb. fine lean bacon, with a bunch of sweet herbs, a piece of fresh lemon-peel, 2 or 3 onions, 3 blades of mace, and a dessertspoonful of white pepper. Boil all till the meat falls quite to pieces, and strain.

Trout.

Roast Prairie Chickens, with sweet potatoes, rice, and beets, spiced currants.

Hock.—One lb. rump steak, do. pork steak, ½ loaf of bread. Chop together like sausage-meat, add 2 eggs, and season with salt, pepper, and sage. Bake like bread, and cut in slices.

Dessert.

Quaking Pudding.—Scald 1 qt. of cream (or milk), and when almost cold add 4 eggs well beaten, 1½ spoonfuls of flour, nutmeg, and sugar, Tie it close in a buttered

cloth, boil one hour, turn it out with care, and serve with wine sauce.

Cranberry Tarts.

Pears and hickory nuts.

Tea, or Lunch.

Cold lamb with tomato catsup. *Kidney Fritters.* (4 eggs well beaten, with a teacup of cream or milk, pepper and salt, pounded mace, chopped parsley, and mushrooms, or mushroom catsup. Chop the kidneys fine, and mix together; pour into a buttered pan, and stir over the fire.) Muffins, Graham crackers, bread, quince jelly, macaroons. Tea.

WEDNESDAY.

Breakfast.—Beef hash, salt mackerel broiled, cold duck, buckwheat cakes, rolls, boiled hominy. Tea and coffee.

Dinner.

A Cheap Soup.—Two lbs. lean beef, 6 potatoes, 6 onions parboiled, a carrot, turnip, head of celery, ½ pt. split peas, 4 qts. water, some whole pepper, and a red herring. Boil well, and rub through a coarse sieve. Serve with fried bread.

Boiled Perch.—Boil quickly with salt, then simmer slowly 10 minutes; melted butter and parsley sauce.

Boiled Mutton, butter sauce, with potatoes, onions turnips, and carrots.

A French Pie.—Lay a puff paste on the edge of a dish, put veal in slices with forcemeat balls, and sweetbreads cut fine. Add mushrooms, seasoning, cover with gravy, a crust, and bake 1 hour.

Dessert.

Hasty Pudding.—One qt. milk, while boiling shake in 2 tablespoonfuls of flour, and stir till it thickens. Put in a deep dish, stir in an oz. of butter, do. sugar, and add grated nutmeg. Sugar sauce.

Floating Island.

Pears, apples, and dates.

TEA, OR LUNCH.

Cold roast veal, birds stewed and spiced, cold. *Potato Fritters.* (Boil 2 large potatoes, scraped fine, 4 eggs, 1 large spoon of cream, do. wine, a squeeze of lemon, and a little nutmeg. Beat the batter ½ an hour, and fry in boiling lard.) Corn pone, crackers, and cheese, stewed pears, dry toast, bread, tea. *Seed Cake.* (1½ lbs. flour, 1 lb. sugar, 8 eggs, 1 oz. seeds, 2 spoonfuls yeast, and same of milk.)

THURSDAY.

Breakfast. — Cold rabbit, minced mutton, poached eggs, corn muffins, rice cake, rolls. Tea and coffee.

DINNER.

Spanish Soup.—Three lbs. beef, 1 lb. ham, cover well with water, boil and skim. Add a teaspoonful pepper, simmer 2 hours; cook separately a cup of rice, onions cut small, and cabbage. Eat them separate from the soup if desired.

Roast Oysters.

Roast Veal, with corn, tomatoes, and baked mashed potatoes.

Beef Steak Broiled.

Dessert.

Peach Pie.

Matrimony.—Make ice cream, after the Newport receipt, (1 qt. milk, 1 pt. cream, 2 tablespoons corn starch, and the yolk of one egg, sweeten and flavor to taste; mix the corn starch in part of the milk, and add the egg, then add to the milk, boiling hot. When cool it is ready for the freezer,—and mix with fresh, or canned peaches; freeze all together.)

Grapes, chestnuts, and pears.

TEA, OR LUNCH.

Cold roast beef, pickled tripe, crackers with anchovy, paste spread on them; raspberry jam, corn bread, dry

toast. *Sponge Cake.* (Break 10 eggs into a deep pan, with 1 lb. sifted sugar, set the pan into warm water, and beat ¼ of an hour, till the batter is thick and warm. Then take out of the water, and whisk till cold. Stir in lightly 1 lb. flour, and flavor with essence of lemon.) Tea and chocolate.

FRIDAY.

Breakfast.—Turkey hash on toast, cold ham, sardines, scallops fried, cream toast, rolls. Tea and coffee.

DINNER.

Game Soup.—Take 2 old birds, or pieces left from the table, cut fine, with 2 slices of ham, 3 lbs. of beef, a piece of celery, and 2 large onions. Put on the fire with 5 pts. of boiling water, and stew gently for 2 hours. Then strain, and put back into the pot with some stewed celery, and fried bread, season well, skim, and serve hot.

Lobster.

Roast Lamb, with cauliflower, oyster plant, and potatoes.

Chicken Pie.— Half boil a large fowl, and cut in pieces; put the broth rich into a deep dish with a handful of parsley scalded in milk, and season well. Add the fowl, and bake with a raised crust. When done, lift the crust, and add ½ pt. cream, scalded, with a little butter and flour in it; mix well with the gravy.

Dessert.

Apple Pie

Boiled Rice, in cups, with cream and sugar.

Apples, pears, and nuts.

TEA, OR LUNCH.

Dutch herring, raw oysters, cold hock, milk toast Graham bread, stewed apples. *Spanish Fritters.* (Cut French rolls into pieces length of a finger, mix together one egg, cream, sugar, and cinnamon, and soak them in it. When well soaked, fry a light brown, and serve with wine and sugar sauce.) Chocolate, cheese.

SATURDAY.

Breakfast.—Beefsteak with mushrooms, cold potted game, fried Indian pudding, sausage, toast, rolls. Tea and coffee.

DINNER.

Venison Soup.—4 lbs. venison cut in small pieces, and stewed gently in brown gravy soup. Strain, and serve with French beans cut in diamonds, adding 2 glasses of port wine ; separate from the soup if desired.

Fried Perch.

Roast Turkey, cranberry sauce, with potatoes, beets, and squash.

Irish Stew.—5 thick mutton chops, 2 lbs. potatoes peeled and cut in halves, 6 onions sliced, and seasoning Put a layer of potatoes at the bottom of the pan, then a couple of chops, and some onions; then another similar Add 3 gills of gravy, and 2 teasponfuls mushroom catsup. Cover close, and stew 1½ hours. A small slice of ham is an addition.

Dessert.

Baked Apple Dumplings.

Blancmange.

Fruit and nuts.

TEA, OR LUNCH.

Cold tongue, pickled fish, French bread, boiled rice stewed prunes, *Ginger Pound-cake.* (1 lb. butter, do. sugar, do. flour, 8 eggs, and 2 tablespoons yellow ginger.) Tea and coffee.

SUNDAY.

Breakfast.—Cold roast turkey, ham cake, anchovy, toast, fried samp, buckwheat cakes, brown bread, gems. Tea and coffee.

DINNER.

Tomato Soup.—Plain beef soup, with 2 cups of fresh or canned tomatoes, well seasoned.

Boiled Cod, oyster sauce.

Roast Ducks, with currant jelly, sweet potatoes, cauliflower, spinach, and stewed potatoes.

Boiled Ham.

Dessert.

Mince Pie.

Delicate Dish.

Grapes, apples, and almonds.

TEA, OR LUNCH.

Broiled salmon, cold corned beef, Boston crackers, with tomato catsup, waffles, dry toast, preserved grapes, assorted cakes. Tea.

DECEMBER.

MONDAY.

Breakfast.—Fried chicken, cream sauce, potatoes à la maître d' hôtel, baked beans, brown bread, rolls, dry toast. Tea and coffee.

DINNER.

Ox-tail Soup.—Cut up 2 ox-tails, separating them at the joints; fry them with butter, together with 4 lbs. of gravy beef, a carrot, turnip, 3 onions, a leek, a head of celery, and a bunch of sweet herbs; add a pint of water and a teaspoonful of peppercorns; stir over the fire till the pan is covered with a glaze; fill up the pot with 3

qts. of water, and when it boils set it where it will simmer until the tails are tender, then trim them and lay aside. Cut some turnips and carrots in fancy shapes (about ½ a pt. of the two), 2 doz. button onions, and a head of celery; boil them in a little soup till quite tender; strain off the soup through a fine napkin, add the vegetables and tails, and season with salt, pepper, and a small piece of lump sugar.

Sea-bass, butter sauce.

Broiled Chicken, oyster sauce; with potatoes, cauliflower, and lima beans.

Venison Steak.

Dessert

Tapioca Pudding.—Simmer 4 oz. tapioca in a pint of milk, ten minutes; then add ½ pt. cream, a teaspoonful pounded cinnamon, 4 oz. butter warmed, same of white sugar, and yolks of 4 eggs well beaten; a little oil of almonds will improve the flavor. Bake half an hour.

Custard Pie.

Pears, grapes, and nuts.

TEA, OR LUNCH.

Pickled shad, cold mutton, clam fritters (make a batter as for common fritters, and stir in the clams chopped fine), steam toast, crackers, French bread, quince marmalade, cream cake, (1 lb. of flour, do. sugar, 1½ lbs of butter, ½ pt. milk, 4 eggs, citrons, raisins and spice.)

TUESDAY.

Breakfast.—Cold venison pie, fried scallops, fried sweet potatoes, cream toast, potted fish, rolls. Chocolate and coffee.

DINNER.

Macaroni Soup.—A plain beef soup with Italian macaroni boiled in it.

Frostfish fried.

Roast Beef, with baked potatoes, spinach, and beets.

Chicken Croquettes.—Take the white meat and chop fine, with bread crumbs, sage leaves, pepper and salt, and one egg. Roll into balls and fry.

Dessert.

Plum Pudding.—One lb. stoned raisins, do. currants, do. fresh beef suet chopped fine, 2 oz. sweet almonds, and 1 of bitter, blanched and pounded; mix together with 1 lb. flour, do. bread crumbs, soaked in milk (squeezed dry, and reduced to a mash before mixing with the flour), 2 oz. each of citron, preserved orange and lemon peel, and ½ oz. mixed spice (2 wine-glasses of brandy should be poured over the fruit and spice, mixed together, and allowed to stand 3 or 4 hours before the pudding is made), ¼ lb. moist sugar beaten with 8 eggs; stir all in the pudding, and make it thin enough with milk—consistence of good batter. It must be tied in a cloth, and

will take five hours' constant boiling. When done, sift loaf sugar over the top, and serve with wine sauce.

Crême a la vanille.—Boil ½ a stick of vanilla in ¼ pt of new milk until it has a high flavor; have ready dissolved in water 1 oz. of isinglass, mix with the milk, and 1¼ pts. of fine cream; sweeten with fine sugar, and whip until quite thick, then pour into the mould, and set in a cool place.

Pears grapes, and nuts.

TEA, OR LUNCH.

Potted game, sardines, cold chicken, cracker toast, rolls, stewed prunes, breadcake.

WEDNESDAY.

Breakfast.—Veal cutlets, fried scallops, boiled hominy, cold boiled ham, rolls, flour griddle-cakes. Tea and coffee.

DINNER.

Cottage Soup.—Two lbs. lean beef cut into small pieces, ¼ lb. bacon, 2 lbs. mealy potatoes, 3 oz. rice, carrots, turnips, and onions sliced, or leeks and cabbage. Fry the meat, onions and cabbage in butter or dripping, and then put them in a gallon of water, to stew gently for 3 hours, putting in the rice, carrots, and turnips only long enough to allow them to get well done. Mash the

potatoes, and pass through a colander, season well, and keep closely covered. It will make 5 pts. of excellent soup, at small cost.

Stewed Eels.—Cut the eels in pieces, fry until brown, then let them cool. Take an onion, some parsley, a sage leaf chopped, and put them in some gravy with a clove, blade of mace, pepper and salt, a glass of port wine, and a little lemon-juice. Strain the sauce, thicken with butter and flour, add a little catsup, and stir the eels until tender.

Roast Lamb, mint sauce, with mashed potatoes baked macaroni baked with cheese, and turnips.

Cold Quail pâté.

Dessert.

Swiss Pudding.—Put layers of bread crumbs and sliced apples, with sugar between, till the dish is full. Let the crumbs be uppermost, then put butter warmed over it, and bake.

Squash Pie.—One qt. pulp strained, 1 qt. milk, with the squash stirred in when boiling, with two spoonfuls flour, 2 eggs, piece of butter size of an egg, season to taste with sugar, cinnamon, and a little salt.

French chestnuts boiled, and pears.

TEA, OR LUNCH.

Cold game pie, cold roast beef, fried Indian pudding, toast, blackberry jam, cheese, bread and butter; jelly

cake (make three or four *thin* sheets of cup cake, 1 cup butter, 2 of sugar, 3 of flour, and 4 eggs, ½ teaspoonful of soda, and 1 of cream of tartar, latter shaken in the flour dry, and spread with jelly, laying one over the other). Chocolate.

THURSDAY.

Breakfast.—Lamb chops, fried oysters, cold tongue, corn pone, Graham biscuit, rolls. Tea and coffee.

DINNER

Gravy Soup.—Lean beef in the proportion of 1 pt. water to 1 lb. meat, and 2 oz. of ham; cover with water and simmer for 3 hours, during which time it must not boil, as the pores of the meat will then be opened and the gravy drawn, throw in 3 qts. of warm water, with ¼ oz. each of pepper, allspice, and salt, as well as sweet herbs, cloves, 2 or 3 carrots and turnips, together with 2 heads of celery, and boil all slowly till the meat is done to rags. Strain it well. It will keep well.

Fried Perch.

Roast Chickens, with cauliflower, boiled rice, and sweet potatoes; cranberry sauce.

Calf's Brains, fried in batter.

Dessert.

Lemon Pie.

Charlotte Russe.—Line the bottom of a mold with Savoy biscuits, or sponge cakes, and fill it with any kind of cream, according to taste.

Apples, grapes, and hickory nuts.

TEA, OR LUNCH.

Ham cake, cold birds, omelet, crackers, corn bread, rolls, stewed pears; cheese cake, ($\frac{1}{4}$ lb. butter, do. sugar, beaten together, 4 eggs, $\frac{1}{2}$ pt. milk with *half* the egg boiled together till it becomes a curd, stirred with a knife, with 2 oz. grated bread thrown in. Stir all into the butter and sugar, with the rest of the egg, and add $\frac{1}{4}$ lb. currants, $\frac{1}{2}$ glass wine or brandy, and teaspoonful of cinnamon, mace, and nutmeg mixed. Bake in a paste $\frac{1}{2}$ an hour.)

FRIDAY.

Breakfast.—Chicken hash, sausage toast, minced salt codfish with potatoes, fried hominy, Indian griddle-cakes bread and butter, toast. Tea and coffee.

DINNER.

Chicken broth, with rice.

Striped Bass, broiled.

Roast Goose with apple-sauce, tomatoes, potatoes, and beets; chow-chow pickle.

Broiled Oysters.

Dessert.

Baked Indian Pudding.—Boil a pint of milk, and into it stir 1 cup meal, do. molasses, one teaspoonful salt, first mixed with a little cold milk; boil it, and pour it into a deep earthenware pot, well buttered, and with a pint of cold milk in it; add one egg and a teaspoonful of ginger. Bake in a slow oven.

Wine Jelly.

Oranges, filberts, and dates.

TEA, OR LUNCH.

Boned turkey, sardines, cold roast chicken, brown bread, milk toast, bread, crackers and cheese, stewed peaches, La Galette cake (1 lb. of flour, do. butter, 2 eggs; knead all into a paste, and make the size of a dessert plate; put in the oven ¼ of an hour, then take it out, beat up 2 more eggs with a little cream and salt, pour over the cake, and bake ¼ of an hour more).

SATURDAY.

Breakfast.—Cold roast goose, head cheese, corned beef hash, stewed potatoes, steam toast, muffins, bread. Tea and coffee.

Dinner.

Potato Soup.—Take large mealy potatoes, peel and cut in small slices, with an onion; boil in 3 pts. water till tender, and pulp through a colander. Add a small piece of butter, a little cayenne pepper, and salt, and just before the soup is served 2 spoonfuls of good cream. It must not boil after the cream is put in.

Roast Oysters, on toast.

Boiled Corned Beef, with rice croquettes, potatoes, and cabbage.

Partridges roasted; currant jelly.

Dessert.

Peach Pie.

Cream Meringues.—(From the Confectioner.)

Oranges and nuts.

Tea, or Lunch.

Chicken Salad.—(Cut the meat from 2 fowls, boiled or roasted, in pieces not exceeding an inch; white part of 2 large bunches of celery in the same way, mix together, cover, and set away. Mash the yolks of 9 hard boiled eggs to a paste, and mix with ½ pt. sweet oil, do. vinegar, a gill mustard, a teaspoonful cayenne, and one of salt. Stir till well mixed and smooth. Then set away. *Five minutes* before the salad is wanted, pour the dressing on, and mix well). Cold veal, boiled rice, rolls and

bread, canned peaches. French Cake—*Bolas d'Amor* (1¼ lbs. flour, 1 cup yeast, ½ pt. milk warmed, 1 lb. butter 4 eggs. Make a hole in the flour, and pour in the milk, eggs, and yeast. Mix all together, beating in the butter by degrees, and let it stand an hour to rise. Mix in ½ lb. sifted sugar; ornament with citron). Tea and chocolate.

SUNDAY.

Breakfast.—Broiled ham, cold roast pork, chipped potatoes, buckwheat cakes, gems, rolls. Tea and coffee.

DINNER.

Winter Soup.—2 carrots, do. turnips, and the heart of a head of celery. Cut into small pieces with 6 button onions, and half boil in salt and water, with a little sugar, then throw into a rich beef broth. Add small dumplings boiled in water, just before serving.

Fried Trout.

Stewed Chickens—With macaroni stewed, and potatoes. Cut in pieces and scald, fry in butter with sweet herbs chopped, pepper and salt, and add boiling water and flour. Stew until cooked, and add a tablespoon of cream, yolk of an egg, and a little lemon juice.

Quail on Toast.

Dessert.

Batter Pudding.—1 qt. milk, 6 eggs, 14 tablespoons

flour, a little salt. Boil 1 hour and 10 minutes; cold wine sauce.

Brandy Peaches.

Prunes, grapes, and nuts.

TEA, OR LUNCH.

Cold beef, partridge pâté, steam toast, muffins; preserved plums, bread, tea, cookies (1 cup butter, 2 sugar, 5 flour, 1 egg, 4 tablespoons milk, and spice).

APPENDIX

Pickles and Sauces.—Avoid all use of metal vessels in their preparation, use wooden spoons, and keep in wide-mouthed bottles.

To Pickle small Cucumbers.—Take *one hundred*—in September—place in a deep stone jar, sprinkle with a pint of salt, pour on boiling water, and cover tight, that no steam evaporate. Let them stand twenty-four hours. Wipe each one dry with a cloth.

Place in an unglazed jar, and cover with boiling vinegar, spiced, with cloves, whole pepper and mace. Eat after two weeks. The same proportion for any number.

To Pickle Cauliflower.—Strip off the leaves, quarter the stalk, and scald in salt and water till soft; dry on a sieve, and cut in small pieces after twenty-four hours; place in a jar, and cover with cold spiced vinegar: seal up.

To Pickle Eggs.—Boil hard, twelve or more, and lay into cold water; peel off the shells, and lay whole into a stone jar, with mace, cloves, and nutmegs. Fill up with boiling vinegar, cover close; after three days scald the vinegar again, and pour over; cork tight. Use in two weeks.

To Pickle Mushrooms.— Clean, and place in layers sprinkled with salt, for two days; add whole black pepper and spice; cover close, and set in a cool oven for an hour. Strain off the liquor, and add cloves, mace, and allspice. Let it boil, then throw the mushrooms in, set away till cold, then add a little vinegar, and pot.

To Pickle Walnuts. — Gather about the middle of July; prick with a needle, and put into water for three days, changing the water every day. Make a strong brine of salt and water, boil and skim; when cold, take one gallon to every hundred walnuts. Let them stand six (6) days, change the water, and leave six days more. Drain, and expose to the sun, so they may turn black. Make a strong pickle of wine vinegar, flavored with cloves, mace, whole pepper, mustard-seed, and horse-radish. Allow to every hundred walnuts, six spoonfuls of mustard-seed, with one of whole pepper. They will be good for years; not fit for use for six months, however.

To Pickle Lemons.—Take the finest, with thick rinds; cut incisions, and fill them with salt. Put on a dish, and lay near the fire, or in a hot sun; repeat the operation several times.

Make a pickle of the best of cider vinegar, spiced with cloves, allspice and ginger, and pour over when cold; bottle tight, and keep for years.

Walnut Vinegar. — Put walnut shells into a strong brine for ten days, then lay in the sun for a week to dry Place in jar, and cover with boiling vinegar. In *ten days* pour it off, and boil again. Then stand for a month, and it will be fit for use; excellent for cold meat, and flavoring sauces.

Cucumber Vinegar.—Pare and slice *fifteen* large ones; place in a stone jar, with *three* pints of vinegar, *four* large onions also sliced, *two* large spoonfuls of salt, *three* teaspoonfuls of pepper, and one half a one of cayenne; after standing four days, boil, and strain when cold, and bottle.

Sauce Universal—Take one pint mushroom catsup, one glass of port-wine, and a teaspoonful of vinegar, one do. black pepper, salt, allspice, and minced onion. Set it in a jar in water, increasing the heat to 90° Fahrenheit; stand twenty-four hours. Then after one week strain and bottle; a great addition to gravies.

To Flavor Vinegar.—Take any kind of fruit, or herb, and boil in it a short time, and bottle when cold; a great addition to cutlets.

Jersey Pickle.—Slice and chop *one* peck green tomatos, *six* peppers and *four* onions; throw over them *one* cup of

salt, and let them stand twenty-four hours; then drain, and put into a stewpan, cover with the best of cider vinegar, stewing slowly. Add *one* cup brown sugar, *two* spoonfuls horse-radish grated, *one* of powdered cloves, *one* of allspice, *one* of cinnamon, and boil full three hours; bottle in wide-mouthed jar, and seal.

Chile Sauce.—*Three* peppers chopped fine, seeds included; *one* large onion, *twelve* ripe tomatoes, peeled; *one* tablespoonful of salt, *one* of sugar, *one* teaspoonful of allspice, do. cloves, do. ginger, do. nutmeg, *two* tea-cups of best of vinegar; boil well one hour and bottle.

Tomato Catsup.— One gallon of skinned tomatoes, boiled and strained; then add, *four* tablespoonfuls of salt, *four* tablespoons of black pepper, *two* of allspice, *two* of cinnamon ½ one of red pepper pure, one quart wine vinegar; boil well one hour, bottle and seal, when cold. Keep in a dry place.

Mushroom Catsup.—Break up the mushrooms, scraping off the dirt with a knife; place in layers in an earthen pan, sprinkling with salt. Cover the pan with a towel, for twenty four hours, rub them up, and strain through a muslin, squeezing out all the juice. To every quart add *one* tablespoonful of black peppers, whole, *one* teaspoonful of allspice, *one* half do. of cayenne, *one* dozen cloves, and *four* large blades of mace; boil slowly four hours, pour

into a bowl or deep dish to settle for twenty-four hours, covered. Then pour gently through a fine hair-seive, and put into small bottles, putting in the top of each one a few drops of olive-oil and sealing the cork; it will keep for years, in a cool place.

Preserves and Confectionery.—Every article of this kind should be made of the best of sugar, and small fruits for jams, previously boiled to evaporate the watery particles, before adding the requisite amount. The following is the best method we have seen for preserving fruit.

Melt one pound of sugar in one half-pint of water, and put into every quart-bottle of fruit. Place the bottles in boiler, or steaming-box, in cold water, raising the heat to boiling point: have ready corks steamed so as to be flexible, force them by blows from a mallet. Pare the corks close to the bottle. Have ready a vessel of melted sealing wax, of the following ingredients: One pound of rosin, three ounces beeswax, one and a half of tallow; have ready a brush, and cover the corks, then dip the mouth into the melted wax; then transfer it to a cold basin of water. Repeat the operation, and see that the wax is smooth and complete. Pack away in a cool, dry cellar, excluding all light. Examine after one week, to see if there were flaws in the bottle; or any marks of

fermentation. Peaches and pears should be dropped into cold water, to prevent their color changing after paring.

To Keep Grapes in Brandy.—Take large, close bunches, black or white; lay them in a jar, put the weight of them in powdered sugar over them, and cover with brandy. Tie down with a bladder; prick the grapes with a pin, first.

To preserve Strawberries in Wine.—Put large fine ones in a wide-mouthed bottle, strew over with fine sugar, fill up with Madeira wine or Sherry.

To preserve Oranges or Lemons in Jelly.—Make a hole the size of a shilling, and scrape the pulp out clean; lay in soft water for two days, then boil tender, slowly; to every pound of fruit, take two of sugar, and one pint of water; boil with the juice to a syrup, then boil the fruit in the syrup half an hour.

Marmalades.—Boil ripe apricots in syrup; beat in a mortar, take half their weight in loaf sugar, and water to dissolve it; boil well together till thick.

Orange Compote.—Lay the oranges in water four hours, boil till tender, cut in halves, and take out the insides; to every pound of peel, *well pounded*, add one of

sugar; take out the seeds, add the weight in sugar to that, and beat; mix and pot.

To dry Cherries without Sugar.—Stone, and set them over the fire, letting them simmer in their own liquor: let them get cold; give them another scald, and spread on sieves to dry, in a cool oven.

Orange Syrup.—Take large, deep-coloured oranges, and throw into water for twelve hours; put into a cloth and boil, cut in quarters; and after taking out the pulp, throw into cold water. Make a thick syrup, and add the pulp.

Colouring for Jellies.—For *yellow*, yolk of eggs, or a bit of saffron steeped in the liquid. For *green*, spinach leaves, or beet leaves. For *red*, beet root sliced.

Bonbons.—Clear off the sugar from fresh candied citron; cut into squares one inch thick, stick on a bit of wire, and dip into liquid syrup; wet a dish with a few drops of pure olive oil, and lay the fruit to cool.

Toffie.—Melt in a stewpan, three ounces of butter, add one pound of moist sugar, stir well over a slow fire, boil one quarter of an hour; pour out on buttered dishes and mark in squares.

Candied Fruit.—When boiled in the syrup, put a

layer on a new sieve, and dip it suddenly into hot water drain, and cover with sifted sugar; dry in a warm oven turning over frequently.

Raspberry or Blackberry Vinegar.—Take a jar of vinegar and fill with fruit; let it stand for three days: strain, and for every pint of juice, add one pound of sugar; boil up once, and skim; bottle and seal.

FINIS.

TILL THE DOCTOR COMES,

AND

HOW TO HELP HIM.

BY

GEORGE H. HOPE,

M.D., M.R.C.S.E.

REVISED, WITH ADDITIONS BY A NEW YORK PHYSICIAN.

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PREFACE TO THE AMERICAN EDITION.

IN preparing this little volume for the American public, it has seemed to me not advisable to make any essential change in its original plan. Its style is attractive, and I have in many instances done little else than give familiar names in place of those which are less well known in this country. My aim has been to simplify the text, and with this view I have omitted several prescriptions more elaborate than could well be made up in a family, and have struck out several subjects where I thought the risk of delay would be less than that of treatment at non-medical hands. I have added a few short paragraphs on subjects to which our wide extent of country, and our peculiarities of climate, give an every-day importance they do not possess in England. In some few cases where my views of the best treatment have differed from the author's, I have substituted such directions as I thought did justice to myself, and would prove of the greatest service to those who may consult this book. But I would say to those who learn from these pages how they may well employ the anxious moments *till the doctor comes* and takes the responsibility upon his shoulders, that their thanks are justly due to the English author, much more than to the American Editor.

J. H. E.

April, 1871.

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TILL THE DOCTOR COMES.

TAKING THINGS QUIETLY.

A SHORT time since a man met with an accident, having his wrist cut with a piece of a broken jug. This man, residing in one of the largest cities in the world, surrounded by thousands of people, the largest hospitals, and the best doctors, was allowed to bleed to death, and his wife had to stand her trial for murder, all for the want of a little knowledge, a little common sense, used at the proper time.

The occurrence much impressed my mind with the need of a few hints and instructions, as to what is best to be done in the case of accident or sudden illness, especially by those who reside at a distance from the nearest surgeon. I therefore propose to write, in the very plainest language, a few directions and suggestions. But no one can always foretell whether a matter will prove serious or not. What I may write, therefore, is not to take the place of the advice or care of a doctor, but merely that people may employ the time profitably while they are waiting TILL THE DOCTOR COMES. As he is not likely to come till he knows he is wanted, the first thing will be to send to him, and while the messenger is away, let us consider what to do.

Well, then, let us suppose an accident has happened, what is the first thing we want? Presence of mind, self

control, and the power of keeping silent when it is best to do so. Of all the miserable hindering nuisances, there is none worse than persons who, just at the time when their services are most required, begin to scream, run wildly about, put themselves in every one's way, hinder other people, are not able to give a sensible answer, perhaps faint, or go into hysterics, or pretend to do so.

Every one knows that all have not the same gifts, all have not the same strength of nerve. Most people have naturally a feeling of dread and of nervous horror at the sight of blood; and this is quite natural, for blood always suggests to the mind suffering or death. Still, much can be done by mere force of will, determination, facing the thing bravely. Not that we should be hard-hearted, and have no sympathy with our fellow creatures when suffering. But by a determination to conquer one's self, in plain language to make one's self go through it, this can be done, and is done by hundreds every day. Some ignorant people will tell you that a doctor has no feeling for his patient, but they know little of the truth. Ask those who live with them and know them, and hear their remarks about the painful operations they have had to perform, and how nobly the poor patient bore it. Ask Florence Nightingale and the noble women who without pay or reward attend in our hospitals, and in the dwellings of the poorest of the poor, who witness and dress every description of wound and accident. Almost every description of loathsome disease is nursed by these tenderly brought up ladies—accidents by machinery tearing the body to pieces, accidents by fire, where not only is the poor sufferer a frightful object, but where the peculiar sickening smell of burnt flesh seems to cling to the person and clothing for days afterwards. Do not they suffer when others are in pain? Yes, truly; but they have taught themselves to bear it, so that they can overcome

their feelings. Let us strive to conquer ourselves, to be calm when accidents happen or sudden illness comes on, so that we may be useful to others in their distress.

There is a wonderful difference in the way in which pain affects individuals. The injury which will be borne by one with scarcely a word of complaint, will force another to cry out and writhe about. A sailor, or a man accustomed to labor in the open fields, or any person taken suddenly from an active life, cannot be expected to bear confinement to bed, or even to one position, as well as another who has been employed sitting at some indoor occupation. It is well for nurses and friends to bear this in mind, and not to be easily made cross or impatient. For many years I had to do with one of our largest hospitals. I scarcely ever had a healthy sailor come into the house with a broken limb, who did not manage to kick off splints, bandages, and so on regularly the first few nights. But it is only for a short time, they soon become quiet and accustomed to the confinement.

Let all who have to suffer, remember a few simple truths. When they give way, they add greatly to the distress and confusion of those who are with them, they very much hinder their own recovery, and when the pain is over reflect upon themselves for not having been braver. It is indeed wonderful what can be done, when a person makes up his mind to grin and bear it, as the soldiers say. I have marvelled how any one could possibly bear up under slow cutting operations or accidents. A curious instance, but a very instructive one, occurred to me some years ago, before chloroform was invented. A large, well-made, healthy seaman was brought into the hospital with his leg so terribly crushed that it was necessary to take it off some distance above the knee. I said to him, "Jack, I am very sorry to have to tell you, that the only thing which can be done with this unfortunate leg is to

take it off; we cannot save it, you know we cannot splice it or fish it like a mast."

"No," he replied, "I can see that; well, it must be done, it 'ill never be seaworthy any more; how long will it take doing it?" So I told him only a very short time. "Oh, well," he said, "cut the wreck adrift, and fit a timber one, I'll bear it."

So the limb was taken off without one groan or one word of complaint. But as the house-surgeon was putting on a bandage, he accidentally pricked him with a pin, when he immediately cried out, "Hallo, Mr. Surgeon, the point of that marling-spike's rather sharp, that's too bad."

So I said, "Why Jack, how is this?—you bore having your leg taken off like a brave fellow, as you are, without speaking one word, and now, when only the point of a pin touches you, you call out?"

"Ah, sir," he said, "don't you see, I made up my mind to have my leg cut off? I told you I'd bear it, but I made no bargain about the pin-sticking business."

This is a most excellent example of what I mean by "making up the mind to bear it." But, alas for us poor men, we do not as a general rule bear pain well; we are used to an active, busy, out-of-door life, more so than women; we are apt to be cross when suffering or compelled to be still, and need a good deal of coaxing and petting to behave properly; but let us try our best, and if we meet with any accident to which man's occupation makes him liable, let us always bear in mind that the most terrible accidents which tear a man to pieces are not the most painful. The larger the surface burned or scalded the less the pain, and the diseases which cause the greatest suffering are not by any means the most fatal.

Pain is in every case the result of something being wrong either in mind or body, and though it may be hard

to bear, it is not entirely an evil. It is a merciful provision to warn us of danger, or to tell us we are committing some error. If a child puts its hand into the flame of a candle, the pain teaches it to snatch it away in a moment, before it has time to do serious injury. A person using a knife, and cutting into the finger, is instantly warned to stop, he is doing harm. Or suppose the clothing of a very aged or infirm person were to take fire, when left alone and asleep, the cry of suffering will bring assistance, whereas, if there were no pain, he might be burned so severely as to cause death, and not be aware of what was going on.

One other remark, and I finish this part of the subject, and this I address particularly to husbands. When you feel inclined to be cross and think yourself very badly used, look at your wife, or if not married, look upon your mother, and reflect that each time a child was born she suffered an agony of pain such as you can have no conception of, such as you have never felt and never can feel. And yet in a few minutes after this anguish she will greet you with a sweet smiling countenance. Let us do our best, and in our time of suffering let us be gentle and kind to those who are doing their best for us. A great deal may be done by trying.

And now having brought patients and attendants together, I will endeavor in the next chapter to see how they can best employ the time TILL THE DOCTOR COMES.

THE SICK ROOM.

If you are so fortunate as to have a choice of rooms, do not put your patient into one which is dark and gloomy, but let it be light and cheerful, and with a fireplace if possible.

If the illness be fever, something wrong with the eyes

or brain, or other sickness requiring quiet, a back room away from the family will answer best; the patient will not care to look at anything or to speak much, and quiet is necessary. But if he be suffering from an accident, let him be near the rest of the family where you can speak to him. This will help to keep him contented and cheerful, for it will be an amusement to him to watch your movements while you are going on with your work, and it will save time in waiting upon him.

Avoid a room which is exposed to disagreeable effluvia from any source.

Never have the window so fastened that you cannot open it, especially from the top. Be careful not to have much furniture in the room, particularly if the disease be infectious. Bear in mind that woollen articles *hold smells* much longer than cotton or linen, therefore do not have woollen curtains. It is better to have no curtains at all, but if you think the room looks bare and cheerless use light muslin, or something which will easily wash.

Have no woollen-covered sofa or chairs; cane-bottomed or plain wood are preferable, and a clean boarded floor, kept sweet by scrubbing and elbow-grease, is infinitely better without any carpet, excepting, perhaps, a narrow strip for you to walk upon just to prevent noise. In case of accident, the bed may be placed where the patient feels most comfortable, only it should be where there is a good light to see and dress the wound; but in fever and small-pox let it be between the door and the fireplace. The reason for this is that as the fire cannot burn without air there must be a draught to feed it, and as this becomes heated and rushes up the chimney, it is replaced by a fresh supply drawn in through the door and window. In this way the chimney acts as a ventilating shaft, carrying away the impurities of the room, and so helps to prevent the disease spreading. It is clear, therefore, that if a person

stands between the bed and the fireplace, he must get the air after it has been contaminated by passing over the patient; whereas, on the other side—that is, between the bed and the door—he breathes the air pure. If from the form of the room the bed cannot be placed in this position, let there always be sufficient space left between the window and the bed to stand in.

If the room has not been used for some time, do not put the patient into it until you have lit the fire and seen if the chimney draws well. If it be damp and cold, most likely it will not, and it is too late to discover this after the sufferer is put to bed. I remember an instance where an old gentleman was taken suddenly ill with a chest complaint; he was carefully placed in bed, a blister put on the chest, and medicine given to promote perspiration. This was just at the commencement of winter, and a fire was required, but on endeavoring to kindle it, every particle of smoke seemed to pour into the room. In a few minutes it was filled; my poor patient, with the difficulty of breathing from the disease and the smoke combined, was in a miserable plight. Doors and windows had to be thrown wide open, and then, to complete the confusion, a poor terrified swallow, which had built its nest in one of the flues, forced its way down the chimney, its feathers of course covered with soot. The poor bird, so rudely disturbed out of its sleep, dashed wildly about the room, leaving plenty of black marks against walls, if not also against our characters for our want of forethought. A smoky chimney may often be cured by holding a lighted newspaper a little way up the flue. This warms the air and causes it to ascend.

As to the bed itself. The best is no doubt a hair mattress, but as this is so expensive, I shall merely say if you have one, use it, but unless you are obliged, do not use one made of feathers. It is too soft, and the patient sinks

into holes, so that in case of wounds or burns you cannot get to them properly. Besides, if the feathers get wet you cannot put them right again. Good clean straw or chaff, well and evenly packed in, is far better. It costs much less to begin with, it is more comfortable, and very much superior in point of health, and has this great advantage, that in case of being spoiled it can be emptied, the cover washed and refilled without loss of time and at a very trifling expense.

It is a disadvantage to have the bed too wide. If the patient be lying in the middle and needs help, the nurse is obliged to lift either kneeling on the bed or at arm's length, a position which takes away all her strength and causes a very painful strain on the muscles. If you are obliged to use a wide bed, a good plan is to make a division down the middle with a board a few inches high covered with the under bedclothes. This not only prevents the invalid slipping away from you but answers the purpose in some degree of two beds.

When you want to change the bedclothes, and the patient cannot get up, proceed in this way: roll up the clothes to be changed tightly to the middle, lengthwise, not across the bed; put on the clean things with half the width rolled up close to the other roll, lift the patient on to the newly made part, slip off the clothes he has just been lifted from, unroll the clean ones, and it is finished without any difficulty.

If you have time before you put the patient to bed scour the floor right well, and wash it with hot water, with a few cents' worth of chloride of lime mixed with it, or if you cannot get this, use a good-sized piece of quicklime, and rub well up into the cracks and corners. Do not be anxious to remove the whole of the lime. If you leave a little sticking in the crevices and pores of the wood it will prevent insects, give a clean, sweet smell to the place, and

help to keep away infection. Now dry it thoroughly, and the room is ready for the invalid.

NURSES AND NURSING.

It is a great error to suppose that only women can nurse. I have frequently met with men, particularly husbands, who have been quite as gentle in their touch, quite as thoughtful about little wants, and far more tender and considerate than almost any woman. A man's strength is a great advantage. Ask a wife who requires lifting from the bed, and she will tell you what a comfort it was to feel her husband's strong arms under her: she felt so safe. It is a dreadful feeling for a patient not to have perfect confidence in the power of the person assisting; the dread of being let fall may give a fright which will take days to recover from. Let every man put away the foolish idea that it is *only* a woman's work.

Now there are five qualifications which we require in a nurse—Sobriety, Cleanliness, Firmness, Gentleness, and Patience.

Sobriety.—All I shall say on this point is, if unfortunately you cannot resist temptation, do not come near us—the sick room is no place for you, we dare not trust you.

Cleanliness.—Be always very clean yourself, and keep the room sweet. A very little thing will spoil the appetite of a person already sick. Never let anything offensive, any dressings from a wound or burn, remain in the room. Let every vessel be emptied as soon as it is done with, well washed out, and left in the open air. Change the air frequently by opening the window; remember, bad air will poison a person as surely as bad food. The poison of fever is dangerous or not according as you weaken it with fresh air—just as you make spirit weaker by add

ing water. Do not leave food in a room if the patient cannot eat it. Do not let the drinking water stand long without being changed, as it absorbs whatever gases there are in the room; so that when the patient drinks it you are actually putting back into his stomach the poison which had been thrown out through the skin. Why do people put buckets of water into a place newly painted?—because they know that the water takes up the smell of turpentine and oil as it escapes from the walls.

Firmness.—Remember firmness is not rudeness. You cannot expect a suffering patient to know as well what is best for him as those whose brains are clear. Therefore if a certain thing is best to be done, do it; do it kindly, but do it, he will thank you for it afterwards.

Gentleness.—Whatever you have to do for the patient, be gentle. In cases of rheumatism or broken limbs you must change the clothes, however painful the process, but do it gently, and cause no needless suffering. With care all jerks and knocks may be avoided. And lastly,

Patience.—Never forget the difference between yourself and the person under your care. Did you never yourself feel irritable and restless even when you were well? Have there not been some days when you had been so easily put out, so cross that you have been almost ashamed of yourself? How, then, must it be with the person taken suddenly from an active life and compelled to lie still in one position, or with one whose whole body is racked with pain! Never lose patience, however sorely tried; bear with these trials for a while, and by-and-by you will have your reward.

Few people are aware of the great value of a good nurse, or of the number of valuable lives saved by good nursing. On the other hand, few are aware of the number of lives actually thrown away, and their chance of recovery lost, by the want of faithful, careful nursing. Every doc-

tor can tell you how he has been disappointed, vexed, and his best efforts rendered useless by want of knowledge, and that stupid obstinacy which almost always go hand in hand with ignorance. He will also tell you that it was the honest, sensible nurse who saved his patient by faithfully carrying out his directions.

It is not every one who is fit for a nurse; not because they wilfully do wrong, but they are not *cut out for it.* Nursing is, in a great measure, a natural gift, either in man or woman; just as music, painting, and other things are. There are many good-hearted yet thoughtless people who, with all the training in the world, would never make good handy nurses.

The French have a saying that "Some people's fingers are all thumbs,"—what we should call *awkward people*, people who are everlastingly getting into some trouble. Here is one of them. If she is going up-stairs with her hands full, she steps on to the bottom of her dress, and either drops what she is carrying or goes down herself. If the fire wants coal, she throws on a whole scuttleful, a good part of which comes thundering down on the fender, and terrifies the poor patient so that he will not be at rest for hours; or she has a hole in her dress, or a bit of braid loose, which catches the end of the fire-irons as she passes, and rattles them down. If she is of an age to wear caps, she will have the strings so long that when she stoops over the patient to catch his whisper, the ends will tickle his face. You will generally find at least one of her fingers bound up with rag tied on with black cotton. If a little bread and butter is wanted, she will be sure to fix upon the knife that has been used for peeling onions. If there be any cookery going on in the next room, you may feel pretty sure the door will be left open, so that a good strong smell of frying bacon, or whatever it may be, will fill the patient's room, making

him feel quite sick; and then she will be grieved because he says he can't eat a morsel of food. Suppose he wishes for a glass of water; she first of all fills it up to the brim, puts her hand under his head, bends his neck till his chin touches his breast, then puts the glass to his lips, trickles a good part of it on to his clothes, and thinks he is very awkward to choke over a mouthful of water. If she has occasion to light a candle, she sticks it in between the bars, which soon fills the room with a rank smell of burning fat, and when she takes it out the tallow is melted off, till the wick is a couple of inches long, and coated over with fine ash like the head of a bulrush; or if it be gas, she takes a short bit of paper, turns the gas full on, makes a sudden blaze like a flash of lightning, forgets the bit of paper while she is turning the gas lower, burns her fingers, throws the lighted paper on the floor, and puts her foot on it. The patient, watching all this, gets so nervous and frightened that he loses his night's rest. When the patient is sufficiently well to sit up in bed to take his food, she will, of course, put the tray on his knees, then proceed to raise him into the sitting posture, and if the things are not upset all over the counterpane, it is certainly more by good luck than good management.

Yet she is not *a bad woman*, but certainly she is *a bad nurse.*

Then we have *the fussy nurse.* I know a most kind-hearted, loving creature, who is one of this sort. She wishes so much to benefit her patient that she sadly overdoes it: she bustles in and out of the room every few minutes, wearies her patient with constantly asking him if he cannot eat something, which she would willingly walk miles to get if wanted, raising him up, tucking the bed in, drawing up and lowering the blinds: one, in short, who never can be happy to sit down quietly and wait patiently, but must be constantly on the move; and yet it is her very

goodness which makes her weary the patient, till he says to himself, the first chance he has of getting her out of the room, "You're a good creature; but if you would only be quiet, what a relief it would be!"

Then we have *the careless, slovenly nurse.* The doctor never feels sure that his patient has really had the proper quantity of medicine; if she happened to remember it he would get it, but if not she would make up for it by giving him a double dose next time. There is never a clean glass or cup when wanted. Food is taken to him, and if he cannot eat it, it is left there for hours. There are so many crumbs in the bed that it feels to the poor rheumatic sufferer like lying on a gravel walk. The fire is black, and the hearth covered with cinders. The slops, which ought to have been removed in the evening, are hid under the bed, filling the room with bad smells. Bits of meat, crumbs of potatoes, and other matters, are let fall on the floor and left there: the consequence is, that being winter, the mice, and perhaps rats, finding a warm room and something to eat, think it a very comfortable place, and use it accordingly, which proves anything but comforting to the helpless creature in bed, who has not power to raise his arms, nor sufficient strength to awaken the nurse.

Then we have *the cruel nurse*, who does her duty, but not from love: she carries out the doctor's orders exactly. Her law is like that of the Medes and Persians, which altereth not; if the medicine has to be taken at a certain time, she brings it to the minute, and worries the patient into taking it on the instant. If she says the bedclothes must be changed, and the patient says it hurts him so much to be moved, she answers, "Can't help that, the doctor said it was to be done, and I can't go against his orders." She may be perfectly honest in all her dealings, but there is no tenderness, no compassion.

And lastly, we have what I trust is a very rare char-

acter, *the dishonest nurse.* She drinks most of the wine, and eats pretty freely of the food intended for the sick person, and tells the doctor the patient ought to get better according to the quantity of nourishment he gets through. But she is dishonest in another way: she finds it a great trouble to compel the patient to take the medicine, so she just empties it away a regular dose at a time, so that whenever the doctor happens to call, his eye rests on the bottle, he sees it is gradually becoming empty, and feels satisfied.

Now these are not characters I have heard of or read of, but every one of them has been with me in the sick room. The awkward nurse has been carrying a trayful of things, caught her foot in a bit of carpet, and made a smash. I have seen the careless nurse snatch a child out of bed with its skin wet with perspiration, and set it on a chair with no extra covering, and make the bed. I had once a little patient so ill as to require a blister on the chest. I put it on myself, and then left him in charge of one who turned out to be a *careless nurse.* When I called the next day, I found he had been so neglected, that instead of its being confined to the chest, he had worked it round to his back, where it was left hours longer than it should have been, causing such a sore that the poor little boy could not lie on his back for a week afterwards. I had an instance of a dishonest nurse, who broke the bottle containing the medicine, filled another with sugar-and-water, and put the label on it. Fortunately for her the child did not die, or her reflections would not have been at all pleasant.

It is not absolutely necessary that a person wishing to help the doctor should be highly educated. She must, however, possess the qualification of "common sense." This sort of sense, however, is not by any means common. It is the knowledge of common and every-day affairs.

The helper should be able to read writing and to write fit for reading, or she may be led by the appearance of drugs and vials to make dreadful mistakes. She ought also to have all her five senses in a healthy, active condition—sight, hearing, feeling, smell, taste.

Sight, that she may be able to read directions, or read aloud to the patient, and watch the change of countenance. A quick-sighted nurse will not need to wait till the sufferer has asked for anything in words. She will from the motion of an eye, or the lips, or a finger, see in a moment what is wanted. *Hearing*, that she may catch the faintest whisper, and not oblige a weak patient to exert the voice, and to repeat every request. *Feeling*, that she may detect any change in the heat or dryness of the skin of the patient, and not use any application which will either scald with heat, or cause a chill with cold. *Smell*, that she may detect the least impurity in the atmosphere of the room, or in giving medicine notice if there be any mistake. *Taste*, that she may not offer food unfit to be used, or good in itself, but cooked in such a way as to be disgusting to the patient.

Now if she possesses these qualities, she will very soon, with a little instruction, be able to "help the doctor." But there is one caution required here: she must not have such a very high opinion of her own skill, as to cause her to use it in opposition to the wishes of the doctor. She is at perfect liberty to suggest anything she likes. We have no objection to her saying, "Don't you think such a thing would do good?" or, "Don't you think we might safely do without such a thing?" But we *do* object to her asking the opinion of the doctor, and then acting in opposition to it. Because if he is fit to be trusted with the life of a fellow-creature, he ought to be trusted, and dealt with fairly.

THE MEDICINE CHEST.

In cases of accident or sudden sickness, time is often of the utmost importance. A very simple remedy applied at the moment may often save a long illness. It is therefore desirable to have ready at hand whatever is likely to be wanted in a hurry. Get a small box. Keep it always locked, and out of the way of the children. Use it for medicines and for nothing else. Let it stand where you can lay your hand upon it in a moment. Do not have too many things in it, or they will confuse you. Just put into it what you are most likely to want.

A roll of old linen, of calico, and of flannel, the older the better, but clean and dry. A little lint and some sticking-plaster. The calico and flannel may be in strips, so as to serve for bandages. Fasten each roll with a pin.

A pair of scissors, some pins, tape, and a few large needles ready threaded.

Some castor oil, syrup of ipecac, paregoric, turpentine, senna leaves, Epsom salts, carbonate of soda, a small bottle of laudanum, marked POISON, and a pint bottle of linseed-oil and lime-water.

I have not put simple ointment into this list, because it will not keep good, and a little clean lard will do as well. Nor have I named mustard, because it soon loses its strength, and turpentine will serve the same purpose, is very quickly and easily applied, and if well corked will keep good for a long while.

Then we want a measuring-glass. Nearly all liquid medicine is given by "spoonfuls." Now a "spoon" is a very uncertain measure, and differs in size; therefore better buy a glass marked correctly, teaspoons on the one side and tablespoons on the other.

Lastly, a feeding-cup. In cases of broken thigh, and some other illnesses, the patient cannot be raised, and it is

impossible to give liquids with any degree of comfort while lying down. I have myself known a case, lately, of a lady, who was in a very weak state, being raised, in opposition to the orders of the doctor, as the nurse said, "just for a minute, to give her a drink;" but that minute did all the mischief, for her heart had not power to continue its work in that position: it stopped, and she fell back dead. If you have not one of these cups, a small tea-pot, or anything with a narrow spout, will answer. If the poor sufferer, parched with fever, is crying out piteously, as they frequently do, "Oh, please give me a *big drink*," get a clean straw, bend one end of it gently into the glass, and the other into the mouth. This you can always get easily in the country,—but the best thing for the purpose is about a foot of small india-rubber tubing, such as is used for infants' feeding-bottles. It costs about eight cents, can be bent in any direction, is not easily broken, and will last for years.

In some cases it is desirable to give only a small quantity of fluid at a time; and not only with children, but adults, it is a painful, tantalizing thing to offer a drink, and insist upon the patient taking only a portion of it, or to make the quantity appear smaller by putting it into a large glass. This may be entirely avoided by having a cup or glass to hold just what may be taken. You will find by experience that a child who could not by any amount of argument be induced to leave part of what is in the glass, or be put off with a few spoonfuls in a large one, will be quite contented and happy if you let it have its own particular glass quite full, and with liberty to drink it all, though it perhaps does not contain as much as what appeared such a very small allowance in a larger vessel.

The cost of the whole of our stock will be only a few shillings. Prices vary according to where you make

your purchases; but do not confound low price and cheapness together. They are very different, especially in important things like medicines. If you insist upon paying a very low price for an article, you drive the seller to give you either what is kept till it has deteriorated, or what is adulterated. I will tell you an anecdote. I was writing a prescription in a chemist's shop, when a child came in with a small packet in her hand, and said, "Please, mister, mother says you've cheated her shameful with this magnesia, she can get twice as much for a penny at the other druggist's." So he gave her double the quantity, and said to her, "Be sure to tell your mother that the other was stronger, and so I gave her less of it." When she was gone, he said to me, "Now here is difficult case. You doctors blame us for not selling pure drugs. I gave her as much pure magnesia for her penny as I could afford; but she must have more bulk, so I am compelled to mix a quantity of chalk with it; and now she goes away boasting that she has taught the druggist a lesson not to try to cheat people." The consequence of this system is, that if the patient takes only the dose the doctor ordered, the medicine has not the proper effect, and in case of serious illness the time for doing good may be gone by, and a life be lost in consequence.

You must be very careful about the size of the dose, especially if you give it without a doctor's orders. Medicine given at random is as likely to kill as to cure.

Almost all medicines may be divided into two classes, —one in which the dose seems to be stored up, to accumulate in the system, and where the quantity taken must be gradually decreased. In the other class, the body appears to get used to the medicine, it loses its effect, and the dose has to be gradually increased. Of this class is opium. If it be taken regularly for a length of time,

the quantity which at first was sufficient to remove the pain has to be increased to such an extent, that if it were taken at the commencement before the apprenticeship were gone through, it would certainly produce death; or if the patient who has taken it for a length of time gives it up for a season and returns to a full dose, it will prove dangerous. A case which should be a warning to all who are in charge of the sick occurred lately. A gentleman who suffered from a very painful nervous disease, had prescribed for him a medicine containing a preparation of opium. He was watched over by a kind and affectionate wife, who in every case carefully measured the dose and administered it herself. After taking it for some weeks in gradually increased quantities, the complaint left him, and he discontinued the medicine. Some time after this the pain returned suddenly in the night; his wife measured out and gave him the same quantity at which he left off. He soon fell into a deep sleep, from which he never awakened. Now the lesson which this ought to teach is this: when you have to give for a length of time a medicine containing any preparation of opium, or any other soothing drug, which is intended to relieve pain and procure sleep, give it up for a season and return to it, do not begin again with the quantity at which you left off, but with the dose you gave at the commencement of the illness.

BURNS AND SCALDS.

These are constantly occurring, not only in poor families, but in every class of society. The number of children who die from these causes is dreadful; but when we consider the love of playing with fire common to children, the absurd and dangerous fashion of having the dress swelled out with crinoline when cooking or doing anything near a

fire, the careless manner in which lucifer matches are carried loose in pockets and dropped on to floors, or the way in which hot liquids are placed in the way of children, the wonder is that they do not happen more frequently.

Putting out the Fire.—Take this case, a description of what is unfortunately happening every day:—A woman's clothes take fire; she is wrapped in flames; her arms and hands, her neck and face, are scorched with the heat; her hair is in a blaze; the smoke is suffocating her. She becomes utterly confused, and rushes to and fro, so creating a current of air which increases the fire. The best thing she could have done would have been instantly to roll upon the floor. But how few would have presence of mind to do this! The more need for a friend to do it for her. Seize her by the hand, or by some part of the dress which is ot burning, and throw her on the ground. Slip off a coat or shawl, a bit of carpet, anything you can snatch up quickly, hold this before you, clasp her tightly with it, which will protect your hands. As quickly as possible fetch plenty of water; make everything thoroughly wet, for though the flame is out, there is still the hot cinder and the half-burnt clothing eating into the flesh; carry her carefully into a warm room, lay her on a table or on a carpet on the floor—*not the bed*—give her some warm stimulating drink, send for the doctor, and proceed to the next operation—

Removing the clothes.—Perhaps in the whole course of accidents there is not one which requires so much care and gentleness as this. We want only three people in the room—one on each side of the patient, and one to wait upon them. Oh, for a good pair of scissors or a really sharp knife! What misery you will inflict upon the sufferer by *sawing* through strings, etc., with a rough-edged blunt knife. There must be no dragging or pulling off; do not let the hope of saving anything influence you. Let

everything be so completely cut loose that it will fall off; but if any part stick to the body, let it remain, and be careful not to burst any blisters.

Treatment.—The treatment of burns or scalds in the first stage consists of wet, warm, but not sour applications, and excluding the air.

Now our medicine-chest comes into use. Get out the old linen or calico; wet a piece of this well with the linseed-oil and lime-water, and as soon as an injured part is exposed, put this on; cover it with another dry rag or flannel, and secure it with a bandage. If you have not the mixture of oil and lime-water, get a pint of hot water and milk (equal parts), with a small teaspoonful of carbonate of soda in it. If you have no milk at hand, use warm water with plenty of common soap in it; or if you have no soap, use plain warm water with the carbonate of soda, or a little morsel of common washing soda, not more than the size of a small hazel-nut, to a pint of water, dissolved in it; but whatever you use, keep the parts thoroughly wet and well covered. If you have a waterproof sheet or coat, or a piece of oilcloth, lay this over the mattress, and then a blanket over it. As soon as you have removed all the clothing, and applied the dressings, lift her gently into bed, and cover her as warmly as possible. In after-dressings large surfaces must not be exposed to the air; either leave a thin covering and wet it with the lotion, or if you are using an ointment, remove only a small portion of the dressing at a time, have everything in readiness, and cover again as quickly as possible.

If there be much pain and fretfulness, you may safely give to an adult thirty drops of laudanum in a little water, and repeat this in an hour, and even a third time if needful. To a child ten years of age give in like manner only three drops, but beware of giving any to an infant.

You must not attempt to manage this case further by yourselves. You have now done your best for her *till the doctor comes.*

When you read an account of one of these dreadful accidents in the papers which has ended fatally, you will almost invariably find they conclude with something of this kind—"After enduring great agony for some hours, death relieved her from her sufferings." Now, it may be a great consolation to sorrowing friends to know positively, that in nearly every case this is a mere newspaper phrase, and is not true. Those of us who are accustomed to see these accidents know well that when the surface injured is sufficiently large to cause death, there is not much suffering, the person seems to die from the shock. Friends are constantly deceived by this, and suppose that because there is not much pain, and the patient appears calm and comfortable, there cannot be much danger, whereas it is really the absence of pain, or more truly the want of power to feel pain, which constitutes the danger. Especially is this the case with a child. If the burn be large, particularly on the chest, and the little one remains perfectly quiet, utters no complaint, sighs deeply, and asks frequently for cold water, it is almost certain that life is fast drawing to a close.

For smaller burns use the same remedies till the inflammation has subsided, or as people say, *till the fire is out;* then spread some simple ointment on the *woolly* side of lint, and dress the sores with it. They will generally get well without much trouble. You can make a capital ointment yourselves of common whiting (which you use for polishing tins) and lard without any salt. If the burn be small, and the person can stay indoors, try the following recipe:—Take chalk (whiting) and linseed or common olive oil, and mix them to the consistency of honey, then add vinegar so as to reduce it to the thickness of thin syrup;

apply with a soft brush or feather, and renew the application from time to time. Each renewal brings fresh relief and a most grateful coolness. But if the patient is compelled to go about, you can use the ointment at once, or dust the part thickly over with flour, kept on with rag and bandage; but I am greatly in favor of wet applications, as they do not stick to the raw surface, which is most painfully sensitive. Unless the burn or scald be very small you will almost always find warm dressings much more grateful to the patient than cold.

If a person fall into lime, use vinegar and water instead of, or rather before, the other dressings; and if any get into the eye, wash it well with weak vinegar and water. But if oil of vitriol, or any other strong *acid*, has caused the burn, apply quickly lime-water,* chalk or whiting and water, carbonate of soda, or some of your common washing soda and water, or even old mortar and water.

If a burn be near a joint or on the face, even if small, let a doctor see it, and do not be in any hurry about having the wound healed. Remember that with all the care and skill which can be used, contractions will sometimes take place. The danger to life from a burn or scald is not in proportion to its severity, but to its extent—that is, a small part, such as a hand, or a foot, or a face may be burned so deeply as to cripple it for life, and yet not much endanger the general health, but a slight amount of burning, a mere scorching over two-thirds of the body, may prove fatal.

* To make lime-water, put a piece of unslacked lime the size of a very large walnut into a common-sized wine-bottle full of *cold* water, shake it up a few times, then let it settle. You need not fear making it too strong; the water will take up only a certain quantity of the lime, however much you put into it.

WOUNDS.

These are of various kinds, and are generally dangerous from their position more than from their size, and require treatment suitable for each case.

In all cuts, before you begin to dress them, notice the kind of bleeding. If the blood be dark-colored and flow regularly, you will be able to manage; but if it be bright scarlet, and spurts out in jets, however small the wound may be, send *at once* for the doctor. Do not forget this; it is very important.

If the cut be made with a clean knife or some such weapon, and the person be in good health, it will generally do well. Unless the bleeding be very profuse, do not be in a hurry to stop it. Wash the part well with cold water, dry the skin, bring the edges of the wound together, and keep them there with strips of sticking-plaster; lay a little dry lint on the cut, and secure it with a bandage. Perhaps in a few hours you will find it a little swelled and painful, from being too tight; if so, remove the bandage, and with a pair of scissors cut through the plaster, not near the wound,—that will relieve it. If it be comfortable after this, you may leave it three or four days; but if there be great pain and redness, soak well with warm water, remove all the dressings, and let the doctor take charge of it.

Cuts on the Head cannot be dressed with plaster, unless you shave a large space, and in small injuries this is not needful. Cut the hair very close just round the wound; after washing with cold water, apply a fold or two of wet lint, and leave it there. If, however, it becomes painful, and there be headache and the face flushed, hand it over to the care of the doctor.

Wounds from Splinters, Nails, etc.—Stabs or wounds from splinters of wood or nails, broken glass, or

from wadding or shot from a gun, should not be closed, but rather kept open with a poultice or water dressings, so that anything in the wound may be thrown out. When it is quite clean dress it as a common cut. When there is any splinter or glass, and it can be removed easily, of course do so; but much poking in the wound will do harm. Take it to a doctor, and let him tell you whether it is better to cut it out or leave it to nature.

Wounds on the Shin, where there is scarcely any flesh covering the bone, are often very troublesome to aged people. As soon as possible wet a few folds of linen with spirit—any sort of spirit will do—lay this on the wound, and keep it wet for three or four hours; don't be afraid of the smarting, it will soon pass off. Then dress it with simple ointment spread on lint. If the person can spare the time to sit with the leg up, it will heal in a much shorter time than if employed in walking or standing.

Wounds caused by a Blow, or by a person falling on to cinder or gravel, must be treated in the same way as a splinter, that is, by poultice or warm water till quite clean; but if the person is compelled to go out, you will find nothing so useful as the basilicon ointment spread on lint: this will keep soft and moist the whole day.

If any of the little ones run a fish-hook into a finger, do not attempt to draw it out backward. Cut the line quite clear from it, turn the point upwards and push it through. Accidents with crochet-needles are constantly occurring, and if one be pushed deeply into the flesh you had better not try to pull it out: the hook at the point will tear and inflame the part. A surgeon with proper instruments will take it out safely without any difficulty. If you should be at a great distance from a surgeon, the best thing you can do is,—first be quite sure which side the hook is, then push a smooth ivory knitting-needle, or

something of that sort down the wound till it touches the hook, then pull out both together.

BLEEDING, AND HOW TO STOP IT.

It is well to bear in mind that cuts about the head and face, especially the nose, bleed profusely. Many a mother has had a terrible fright by a child running in with its clothes, hands, and face all smeared with blood. It is astonishing what a mess a child will manage to make with a spoonful or two of blood. Try to keep cool and collected. You will find, most probably, when you have washed with cold water, that the amount of injury is a mere trifle. If it is difficult to stop the bleeding, a most invaluable remedy, and one you will find in almost every house, is the common whiting or pipe-clay. Put a thick covering of either of these on the wound, then a bit of dry lint, and press it closely for a few minutes; let what sticks to the wound remain there, and cover with a bit of plaster. A troublesome leech-bite can be stopped in the same way, without giving the child any pain.

Bleeding from the Nose, unless it goes too far, need not alarm you; nay, in many cases may prevent something much more serious; but when it requires to be stopped, let the person sit upright, bathe the neck and face with cold water, and if you can get a little alum, dissolve that in water, and squirt it up the nostrils, if this does not succeed, send for the doctor. I would not advise you to plug the nostrils, for unless it be done properly you may think the bleeding has ceased, whereas it is only finding its way to the top of the throat, and being swallowed.

Bleeding from a Wound in an Arm or Leg, if severe, must be stopped by pressure. Make a pad of rag a good thickness, place this on the part, and bind a handkerchief or anything of that sort tightly round the limb. If that

be not sufficient, slacken it a little, push a strong stick or a large fork under it, and twist it round; by this means you can get any amount of pressure. If the wound be in the wrist or arm, let it be held up over the head, or if in the leg let the person lie down, and support the foot on a chair. If you be by yourself in the fields, and get a severe cut with a scythe, or in any sudden emergency, such as a railway accident, use the remedy which has saved many a life on the field of battle,—take a handful of dry earth, put this on to the wound, and grasp it tightly, till you can have some assistance.

One of the most difficult situations in which to manage a wound is about the wrist or thick part of the thumb, particularly if it be deep. If this accident should occur when near a surgeon let him attend to it directly, but if not, lose no time in dressing it yourself. Two people are required to do this properly. If you turn your hand with the palm upwards, and lay your finger on the wrist a little to the outer side, in a line with the thumb, you will feel the pulse beating; now let one person stand alongside the patient (not opposite to him) take hold of his arm with both hands, place one of his thumbs on this spot, but a little higher up the arm than the cut, and the other on the little finger side, and press firmly. While one is by this plan arresting the bleeding, let the other bring the edges of the wound together, place over it a thick layer of whiting or pipe-clay, or a large table-spoonful of flour, or if away from home common clay, than a pad of lint or rag of any description, and secure this in its place with a bandage or handkerchief, so put on as to press firmly on the spot. The thumbs may now be removed, but the hand must not be allowed to hang down. If the blood should continue to force its way through, you must, in addition to these dressings, lay a small pad on the artery where you felt the pulse, and keep it in its place with a bandage,

or what is very much better, a strong elastic band. If these means are not sufficient, you must obtain the assistance of a surgeon at once.

It is very desirable that every one, even young people, should understand that in all cases of severe bleeding, be the wound ever so small, the only thing which can be safely depended upon is *pressure*. Three youths lately were walking through some fields, when one of them, who had an open knife in his hand, fell, and the blade was forced into his thigh. His companions, terrified at the sight of the blood, ran off to procure assistance, while the unfortunate sufferer did his best by holding his pocket-handkerchief to the wound. Long before they could return his chance of life was gone. Here was a fine healthy young man cut off suddenly, who might have been saved by the most simple contrivance. Even situated as they were in the open fields, a cork, a stone, a potatoe cut in half, a handful of earth, a bit of rag, or a bunch of grass rolled up into a ball, and put into a handkerchief or necktie, or a stocking, and tied very tightly round the limb so as to press upon the wound, would have arrested the bleeding, or at any rate have lessened it, till it could have been properly secured.

This, then, is a good rule, and may serve as a general one. In case of severe bleeding, press your finger on or into the bleeding place and keep it there till you can have assistance.

Bleeding into the Stomach, or Vomiting Blood.—It is a frightful sight to see a person vomit a quantity of blood, one which tries the nerves severely, but is not always so dangerous as it appears. The blood is of a dark color, and frequently mixed with some portion of food. Give two teaspoonsfuls of vinegar or lemon juice, and one teaspoonful of Epsom salts in a wineglassful of cold water, and repeat this every half-hour till the bleeding stops or

the doctor comes. Give nothing more, excepting very small quantities of cold water, or little bits of cracked ice.

Bleeding from the Lungs, or Spitting of Blood, is always a very serious affliction, a warning which must not be trifled with. You will know that it does not come from the stomach, by being coughed up rather than vomited, it being frothy, a bright scarlet color, and most probably much smaller in quantity. Give one teaspoonful of vinegar and one of paregoric in a little cold water, and repeat this in half an hour. Sponge the chest with cold vinegar and water, and keep the shoulders raised by pillows. Do not allow the person to talk or use any exertion.

Bleeding from Slight Causes.—Some persons have such a tendency to bleed, that even the smallest cut or scratch endangers life, particularly having a tooth extracted. I have seen persons brought very near death from this cause. Such people should always mention this to a dentist when they have a tooth drawn, so that he may be prepared. If you meet with a case of this sort, get a little whiting, or pipe-clay, or powdered chalk, roll this up in a bit of lint, like a cork, dip this in spirits of turpentine, and press it firmly into the hole left by the tooth. If it does not stop the bleeding in fifteen minutes, change this plug for a fresh one, and press that in steadily. Do not remove this for at least twelve hours, and even then do not pull it out, but wash the mouth with cold water till it is loose.

Enlargement of the Veins, or as doctors name it varicose veins, is very frequent in the lower limbs of persons who have to stand many hours in the day, such as Laundresses. Sometimes they become so large, and the coverings so thin, that they burst, and though the bleeding may not perhaps endanger life, it causes great debility. There are two things which people afflicted in this way should attend to. In the first place, whenever it is

possible, even for a few minutes, let the limbs be horizontal, either by lying down, or by having them raised; and secondly, to give support by bandages of flannel, preferably, put on smoothly and evenly in the morning before the legs have time to swell. This should be done if possible by another person, for the leg is altered in shape by being bent. But the best plan of giving support is by elastic stockings, which can be purchased of the exact size required. They can be drawn on over a well-fitting cotton stocking, without any trouble, give equal and gentle support to every part of the limb, and if good will last a long while.

BROKEN BONES.

These accidents often happen where surgical help cannot be got at once, perhaps not at all. A broken bone is easily detected by the person not being able to raise the limb, by its bending where it ought not, and by the pain. Let us commence at the top of the body and go regularly downwards.

Head.—Any accident sufficiently severe to break the bones of the head or face, or to cause the person to remain insensible, needs immediate medical attendance. Let the head be raised, apply cold water, particularly if there be bleeding, and keep down all noise and excitement.

The Collar-bone runs from the top of the breast-bone to the shoulder. This is generally broken near the middle. On the sound side the bone is smooth and even; on the injured side you will observe the lump caused by the broken ends rising one over the other; and if the shoulder be brought forward, you will see the parts move, and the person will suffer pain. There is the same difference in the way in which bones break as there is in a branch of a growing tree and an old one. In a child the bone will bend to some extent, and then not break right through

but in an aged person it snaps off with a clean fracture, like a dry stick. It is of consequence to remember this; for in a child you will not perceive the ends of a bone move as they do in an adult.

Get a round pad the thickness of a man's arm and five inches long Push the shoulder backwards, and press with the other hand on the fracture till you get it in its place; put the pad into the arm-pit, and secure the arm with a bandage around the body; raise the fore-arm well up in a sling. Take the patient to a surgeon, and ask him to show you how to fix it; for you will have to watch over it for a month, and it must not be allowed to slip out of its place.

Ribs Broken, without a Wound.—*Symptoms.*—Pain on taking a deep breath, or on pressure where the injury has taken place. If you press suddenly on the ends of the ribs near the back-bone you will give pain, not where you press, but where the bone is broken.

If there be spitting of blood, keep the patient quiet, and give no stimulants. If there be a bruise, apply hot fomentations, or a large hot poultice; then a bandage of flannel six inches wide round the chest (of course over the injured part); draw this tight, and sew it on with large stitches, not placed opposite each other, but more like what is called the "herring-bone stitch;" tighten it from day to day as required. If the accident happen away from the house, tie a handkerchief firmly over the clothes till you reach home.

Ribs Broken, with a Wound.—If it be merely a scratch, after your fomentation use a bit of lint and plaster, and your bandage as before; but if the wound be at all deep, even if you do not think it has gone through into the chest, put on some folds of wet rag and a bandage. Let the person *lie on the bad side*, and keep him as quiet as you can till the doctor comes. Do not forget this rule.

In all cases of a wound to the chest the person must lie on the wounded side.

Arm, above the Elbow.—There is only one bone here. We want four splints, with a soft pad to each, to reach from the shoulder to the bend of the arm. Place one behind, one before, and one on each side, and secure them with a bandage. Use the sound arm as a model to shape your splints by. Carry the arm in a sling.

Elbow Joint.—The bone which projects at the back of the elbow is broken by a fall or blow. The person cannot use the arm. Compare the two arms together, and you will find the point of the elbow is gone and is drawn up into the back of the upper arm.

Keep the arm quite straight and place a long splint on the inside, well padded.

Arm, below the Elbow.—Here you have two bones, and one or both may be broken. If you try to raise the arm by taking hold of the wrist you will easily detect it.

Hold the arm bent, with the thumb uppermost—as if the person were going to lay it flat against his chest; place one splint along the palm of the hand to the bend of the arm, the other along the back of the hand to a little beyond the elbow; apply a wet bandage loosely to keep them steady, and carry the arm in a sling. After all fractures there is swelling. Always allow for this in bandaging the first two or three days.

Hand, Foot, or Ankle.—These bones are solid, and are almost always wounded by such an accident as breaks or crushes the bone—such as by machinery, threshing-machines, etc.,—and are alwaysserious.

Cover the whole hand in several folds of rag, or handkerchiefs, dipped in cold water. If you cannot find water, wrap it up in a good handful of damp grass. If there be much bleeding, dip it into cold water if you find any on the way. *Hold the hand on the top of your head.*

Hip Joint. The bone here is liable to be broken in aged people from very slight causes. Very frequently the person feels something crack in the hip, and cannot stand or rise from the ground. If placed upright, you will find the injured limb shorter than the other and the foot turned outwards. Remove the clothes carefully and keep in bed till the doctor comes.

Thigh.—The fracture is ascertained by the person not being able to raise the leg, and by pain when he attempts to do so. The greatest trouble you will have in this case is from the violent spasms of the muscles, which draw the broken bone out of its place, and case great suffering.

If in the fields, or away from home, get some stiff straw, reeds, bits of very thin board, or, if anyone has a rather stiff hat, knock the crown out, split up the body, and bind this rather tightly with suspenders, handkerchiefs, etc., round the injured limb. On reaching home, if the spasms be severe, put a strong bandage round the ankle, cross it over the instep, and bring the ends together under the foot, and to this sling a brick, or any convenient article about eight pounds weight. Let this hang over the foot of the bed, so as to draw down the leg. This will give great relief.

Cap of the Knee.—This fracture is commonly caused by falling on the knee, or in trying to avoid falling. As soon as it happens, the person has lost all power of standing on that leg; and if placed upright, drops down instantly. The bone is split across, and has left a gap, just as we found at the elbow when that bone was broken.

Keep the leg quite straight placing the splint of course along the back of the limb, and treat it exactly as we described at the elbow, and when the patient is obliged to move, pass a strong bandage round the neck and under

the foot, and draw it so tight that it will entirely support the weight of the leg.

Leg below the Knee.—Here we have two bones, as in the fore-arm. If the small one be broken, you may have great difficulty in finding it, and it is of no consequence to do so, for the large one will act as a splint; but if the larger one be broken, it is so little covered with flesh that you cannot fail to know it.

Get a broom handle, cut it into two pieces, which will reach from the knee to a little past the foot; take a pillow-slip, or piece of calico about the same size, roll each end round a piece of the brush-handle, and sew it on; lay a soft pillow lengthways in this, place the leg comfortably upon the pillow, bring up the sticks (rolling the calico round them) till it allows them to come just half-way up the knee-joint and half-way up the foot; pass two or three pieces of tape under, bring up the sides of the pillow against the leg, and tie them; keep the foot pointing directly upwards.

General Remarks.—The object you have in view is not to *cure* broken bones, but to put the broken ends in their proper places, and keep them there. Nature will do the rest.

In fractures of the lower limbs, occurring at a distance from home, the jolting of a carriage should be avoided, and the person carried. A door, a broad plank or shutter, a large sack cut open, a sheet or blanket or piece of tarpaulin, fastened at the four corners to two strong hay forks, makes a capital hammock, carried by four men.

In any case of injury to the arm or hand, you need a splint. Any man can make one in a few minutes out of a piece of thin board or stiff cardboard, a cigar box, or an old bandbox cut into slips the breadth of your hand, or a little wider; or if you are in the country you can make an excellent, strong, light splint with six or eight willow twigs

(such as are used for making baskets) tied together in and out with tape; but whatever you use, let it be long enough to reach from a little beyond the elbow to a little beyond the ends of the fingers. Cover this with a pad of soft hay, hair, or anything soft, and then not only the arm, but the hand, will rest comfortably. You can now use anything you like to suspend it round the neck, only bearing in mind that the hand must not hang lower than the elbow.

DISLOCATIONS;

OR LIMBS OUT OF JOINT.

Never attempt to do anything unless you are quite sure it is a case of being "out of joint." It would be a dreadful mistake to pull about a fracture instead. Excepting the one case which I now give you, it will be far better to wait till a surgeon makes a proper examination.

Broken Neck, or Neck out of joint.—This is caused by a heavy fall on the side of the head. The head is turned to one side and fixed. In this case you *must* act at once.

Lay the person on his back, plant one knee against each shoulder, grasp the head firmly, pull gently, and at the same time turn the head into its proper place.

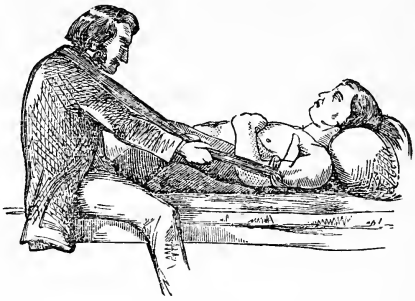
Jaw.—This is sometimes thrown out of joint by opening the mouth too wide, as in gaping; you cannot possibly mistake it. The mouth is fixed wide open, and of course the person cannot speak.

Place a bit of strong stick—a thin walking-stick will do very well—across the mouth, exactly like a horse's bit. Push it far back, then press downwards and backwards till you feel the jaw slip

into its place, or you may push it into its place with your thumbs protected with a towel.

Shoulder.—The arm cannot be raised. You will see the depression on the top of the shoulder, where the bone ought to be, and will most likely feel it in the armpit.

Lay the person flat on his back, and sit down beside him on the injured side. Pull off your boot, place your heel in the armpit, take hold of the arm, either simply with your hands or with a long towel fastened to it, and passed round your neck, and pull steadily. After you have done this some time, tell the person to turn round;



while he is trying to do this, give a sudden strong pull, jerk your heel against the head of the bone in the armpit, and you will hear it return to its place with a snap.

It will be best for you, however, not to try to do this except in an extreme emergency, or in the case of a person to whom the same accident has happened before, for you might do great harm if it were a fracture and not a dislocation.

Thumb.—You cannot possibly mistake this; but, small as the joint is, you will find it exceedingly difficult to master. Take it to a surgeon, if possible. But if you should be a long way from assistance, try the following:

Let one strong man hold the wrist, or, if you are by yourself, let the person lie on the floor. Powder a little chalk or resin on the hand to prevent slipping. Pull steadily at the thumb for some time, then turn the thumb backwards, and at the same time with the other hand push it into its place.

Fingers may be managed in the same way.

Hip.—The leg is shortened, and the foot turned *inwards;* but unless you feel sure it is *out*, do not attempt to do anything. In case of need, act in the same way as you would do in the case of the shoulder, only placing your foot between the legs, protecting the parts with the folds of a towel.

Wrist, Knee, or Ankle.—These are always such severe accidents that they should be at once placed under the care of a surgeon; but if you cannot obtain advice, the principle of action is the same in all cases. By stretching the muscles by pulling, till they become so relaxed, that they will allow you to push the joint back again into its place.

SPRAINS.

A sprain is a very painful and very serious thing. When you consider that from the tips of the fingers to the wrist, or from the ends of the toes to the leg, there are not less than thirty separate bones, all tied together with straps, cords, and elastic bands, and about twenty hinges, all to be kept in good working order, you will

not wonder at sprains being frequent and sometimes serious. You will have little difficulty in knowing a sprain.

But there is the danger of bones being broken or displaced, as well as the mere sprain. Therefore, as soon as possible, before swelling takes place, see if the joint looks natural; compare it with the other one, and notice if any bone be loose or pushed out of its place. If so, go to a surgeon at once. If it is only a sprain, wrap up the part in several folds of flannel, dipped in water as hot as it can be borne with comfort, and cover it with a dry bandage: if possible, with a piece of oiled silk or sheet gutta percha. If it be very painful, wet a piece of rag with laudanum, place this next the skin, then cover with the wet flannel.

All sorts of poultices are used in the country for sprains. So long as they are wet, soft, and warm, they do good; but there is nothing so cleanly, so easily applied and soothing, as the laudanum and hot water.

The part must be kept quiet, not only while painful, but even after the pain has gone; for if you exercise the joint too soon, you may do great mischief. Keep the warm applications on constantly till all pain and inflammation are gone, then, twice a-day, hold the joint under a tap or stream of cold water for a few minutes, till it begins to feel painful; then bind it up with a common bandage, and bring it back to its work very gradually. A great deal of pain and swelling can be avoided by keeping the limb in a proper position. Whether wrist or ankle, *it must not hang down.* If it be the wrist, let it be comfortably supported in a sling; if the ankle, let the person lie or sit with the foot raised as high as is comfortable.

The Tendon at the back of the Heel is sometimes broken by jumping, carrying too heavy weight up steps, etc., or may be cut by a scythe, and the person is "hough

ed." If the accident happen away from home, and you have no conveyance, bend the knee, and secure it with a strap or cord, passed under the instep and around the neck. Then with a pair of crutches, which you can make with two hay-rakes or hay-forks cut to the proper length, the patient can walk. A very good support can be made by a dog-collar buckled round the leg above the knee and attached by a cord to a loop in the heel of a slipper. The leg must not be put down with the sole of the foot on the ground for two weeks, and when walking is first practised, let it be on a level, but do not try to walk upstairs for a month. There is no occasion to confine a person to the house with this accident. Get a pair of crutches at once, secure the leg, and let him enjoy the fresh air.

POISONS AND POISONING.

So many substances of a poisonous nature being used in manufactures amongst farmers, and also in private houses, it will be useful to have a guide to refer to in case of accident; for in almost every case of poisoning the remedy must be given immediately, or we cannot expect to succeed. I give here the names in common use, and under one head I include various articles made from the same substance. For instance, to the word mercury, you will find calomel, corrosive sublimate, white precipitate, vermilion, which are all mercury, but in different forms.

As a general rule, in all cases of poisoning, especially if seen immediately after the poison has been swallowed, the person should be made to *vomit*. To accomplish this give a teaspoonful of mustard in a tumbler of warm water —or two or three teaspoonfuls of powdered alum in the same way,

Arsenic: Scheele's green, ague drops, rat poison, etc.—*Symptoms*: Pain and burning heat of stomach, dry

ness of throat, cramps, purging, vomiting.—*Treatment:* Give large quantities of milk and raw eggs, lime-water or flour-and-water. Then castor oil.

Antimony: Butter of antimony, tartar emetic, etc.—*Symptoms:* Severe vomiting, cramps, faintness, purging. —*Treatment:* Plenty of strong tea. If you have no common tea at hand, use an infusion of oak, elm, sloe, currant, or blackberry bark or leaves. Or for butter of antimony, use the treatment given below for Acids. Support the strength.

Acids: Oxalic, sulphuric (oil of vitriol), nitric (aqua-fortis), muriatic (spirit of salt), but not prussic acid.—*Symptoms:* Horribly burning, sour pain from the mouth downwards. The skin of the lips, mouth, and throat, is dissolved. Purging of blood, great thirst.—*Treatment:* Put an ounce of calcined magnesia into a pint of water, and give a wineglassful every two or three minutes. If the magnesia is not ready, use whiting, chalk, soda, or lime-water, or knock a piece of plaster off the wall, pound it small, and give it in milk or water. While one person attends to this, let another cut some common soap into small bits, and give a teaspoonful with water, or a tablespoonful of soft soap. Give plenty of warm water to drink.

Bad Fish: Mussels, etc.—*Symptoms:* Pain in stomach, headache, flushed face, feeling of choking, perhaps scarlet eruption of skin.—*Treatment:* Empty the stomach by an emetic (as in poisoning by laudanum), then give a full dose of castor oil with some warm spice. A mustard plaster to the pit of stomach if needful.

Bite of Snake, or of any animal supposed to be mad. —*Treatment:* Tie a string tightly above the wound, wash the bite well, let the person bitten suck the wound if he can. If you can get lunar caustic (nitrate of silver), rub it well in, to the very bottom of the wound, or take a very

small poker, or, much better, a steel used for sharpening knives; make the point of this quite red-hot—to a white heat if you can—and press this for a moment into the wound. This is not such a dreadful operation as it seems to be; if the steel, or whatever article you use, is really hot enough, one moment's application is sufficient, and gives scarcely any pain at the time.

In case of a rattlesnake bite the person must be given freely whiskey or other alcoholic stimulant; also spirits of ammonia, if it can be had.

I wish here to draw attention to a most absurd, ridiculous superstition which exists; that is, if a person be bitten by a dog which is in perfect health, but afterwards goes mad, the person also will be affected; so they insist upon the dog being destroyed, for fear it should go mad at any future period. Instead of this, the dog should be carefully taken care of; patients would then have the satisfaction of knowing that there was nothing wrong with it, and their minds would be at rest.

Chloride of Tin: called Muriate by dyers. *Symptoms:* Vomiting, pain in stomach, purging, convulsive twitchings.—*Treatment:* Give large quantities of milk with magnesia, chalk, or whiting in it; also raw eggs beaten up with water or milk.

Chloride of Zinc: Burnett's disinfecting fluid, white vitriol.—*Symptoms:* Same as chloride of tin.—*Treatment:* Plenty of milk, with white of eggs in it.

Copper: Blue copperas, blue verditer, mineral green, verdigris, food or confectionery cooked in foul copper vessels, pickles made green by copper.—*Symptoms:* Coppery taste in mouth, tongue dry and parched, very painful colic, bloody motions. *Treatment:* Large quantities of milk and white of eggs, afterwards strong tea. Don't give vinegar.

Corrosive Sublimate: See Mercury.

Coculus Indicus: See poisonous Plants.

Green Vitriol: Sulphate of iron.—*Symptoms:* Pain, sickness, burning heat of stomach.—*Treatment:* Give an emetic, afterwards magnesia or carbonate of soda and water.

Iodine: Iodide of potassium, or soda, or iron.—*Symptoms:* Burning pain in throat, heartburn, vomiting, very likely salivation.—*Treatment:* Large quantities of cold starch-and-water, or flour-and-water.

Lead: Acetate, or sugar of lead, red lead, white lead.—*Symptoms*, if taken in large quantity: Metallic taste in the mouth, pain in stomach, painful vomiting, often bloody, hiccough.—*Treatment:* Put two ounces of Epsom salts into a pint of water, and give a wineglassful every ten minutes, till it operates freely. Taken in small quantities, either by drinking water out of a new lead cistern, or one newly repaired with white lead, or by working amongst it; lead produces colic, loss of power in the limbs, especially wrist drop, and a blue line along the gums: in this case you will not require to do anything till the doctor comes.

Laudanum: Opium, paregoric, soothing syrup, syrup of poppies, etc., etc.—*Symptoms:* Giddiness, stupor, gradually increasing into deep sleep, the pupil of the eye very small, lips blue, skin cold, heavy, slow breathing.—*Treatment:* Empty the stomach as quickly as possible by vomiting. For an adult give fifteen grains of sulphate of zinc in a little water; to a young person half the quantity, to an infant a teaspoonful of syrup of ipecac. If you cannot get drugs, use mustard and warm water, salt-and-water, and tickle the top of the throat. After vomiting give plenty of very strong coffee, put a mustard plaster round the calf of each leg, and if cold and sinking give a good quantity of spirit-and-water. Keep the patient roused till the effect has passed off by beating the soles of the feet, walking him about, or dashing cold water on

the face. Remember if the patient goes to sleep at this stage, it will be the sleep of death.

Lunar Caustic, or Nitrate of Silver, has been swallowed by accident when used for touching a sore throat, etc.—*Symptoms:* Burning pain, similar to arsenic. —*Treatment:* Give a large teaspoonful of common salt in a glass of water, and repeat this in ten minutes. Then a dose of castor oil, and linseed tea, or barley-water for a drink.

Mercury: Calomel, corrosive sublimate, red precipitate, vermilion, etc.—*Symptoms:* Metallic taste in mouth, burning pain in throat, stomach and bowels, vomiting, very painful purging, and cramps.—*Treatment:* Give the white of an egg in a little water, repeat this twice more with five minutes between each time, give large quantities of milk or flour-and-water, then linseed tea.

Nitre, or Saltpetre.—*Symptoms:* Similar to arsenic.—*Treatment:* Give plenty of flour-and-water, then linseed or sweet oil.

Opium: See Laudanum.

Phosphorus: Lucifer matches.—*Symptoms:* Great excitement of the whole system; other effects like arsenic.—*Treatment:* Give large quantities of warm water with magnesia, chalk, or whiting, or even flour, stirred in it; encourage vomiting, but give no oil or fat of any description.

Poisonous Plants or Seeds: False mushrooms, or anything of the kind picked up by children, but which you cannot tell at the time.—*Treatment:* Empty the stomach by any emetic you have at hand: warm water, mustard, salt, or soap, warm chamomile tea, etc. If there be no purging, give a good dose of castor oil or olive oil. If the patient be faint or sinking, give stimulants.

Potash: Soda, ammonia, sal volatile, salt cake, disinfecting fluids of concentrated solutions of soda or potash

—*Symptoms:* Heat, pain in stomach, vomiting, and purging.—*Treatment:* Vinegar-and-water, oranges, lemons, sour beer or cider, or sour fruit. Afterwards, olive, linseed, or any wholesome oil.

Prussic Acid: Oil of bitter almonds, laurel-water, cyanide of potassium, used by photographers and others. —*Symptoms:* If the quantity be large, death takes place instantly, but smaller quantities produce giddiness, loss of sight, and fainting. The peculiar smell is often perceptible about the mouth.—*Treatment:* Give sal volatile and water, and apply a bottle of smelling salts to the nose, dash cold water on the face, and give stimulants.

Strychnine: Rat poison, etc., nux vomica.—*Symptoms:* There is lockjaw, twitching of the muscles, convulsions, the body is bent backwards, so as to rest upon the feet and head only.—*Treatment:* Try to empty the stomach by an emetic, then give linseed-tea or barley-water, and to an adult thirty drops of laudanum occasionally to relieve the spasms. There are other remedies, but not such as can be used without a doctor being present.

Tartar Emetic: See Antimony.

Zinc Oxide: *Symptoms and Treatment*—As in copper.

Always bear in mind that cases of poisoning admit of no delay. In many diseases and accidents an hour or two may be of no consequence, but here we must think of minutes, and the life or death of the patient will depend upon how you employ them.

TO RESTORE A PERSON APPARENTLY DROWNED.

The Royal Humane Society some years ago published the following directions as to what should be done for people who seemed to be dead from drowning or suffocation, prepared by Dr. Sylvester and Dr. Marshall Hall:—

Send immediately for medical assistance, blankets, and dry clothing, but proceed to treat the patient instantly, securing as much fresh air as possible.

The points to be aimed at are—first, and immediately the restoration of breathing; and secondly, after breathing is restored, the promotion of warmth and circulation. The efforts to restore life must be persevered in until the arrival of medical assistance, or until the pulse and breathing have ceased for at least an hour.

TREATMENT TO RESTORE NATURAL BREATHING.

To maintain a Free Entrance of Air into the Wind pipe.—Cleanse the mouth and nostrils. This is best done by placing the patient gently face downward for a moment with one of his wrists under his forehead. This allows any fluids to escape from the mouth and throat and the tongue to fall forward; draw forth the patient's tongue, and keep it forward; an elastic band over the tongue and under the chin will answer this purpose. Remove all tight clothing from about the neck and chest.

To adjust the Patient's Position.—Place the patient on his back with the head and shoulders raised, and supported on a small firm cushion, such as a folded coat.

To imitate the Movements of Breathing.—Grasp the patient's arms just above the elbows, and draw the arms gently and steadily upwards, until they meet above the head (this is for the purpose of drawing air into the lungs); and keep the arms in that position for two seconds. Then turn down the patient's arms, and press them gently and firmly for two seconds against the sides of the chest (this is with the object of pressing air out of the lungs: pressure on the breast-bone will aid this).

Repeat these measures alternately, deliberately, and perseveringly, fifteen times in a minute, until a spontane-

ous effort to breathe is perceived, immediately upon which cease to imitate the movements of breathing, and proceed to induce circulation and warmth.

Should a warm bath be procurable, the body may be placed in it up to the neck, continuing to imitate the movements of breathing. Raise the body in twenty seconds in a sitting position, and dash cold water against the chest and face, and pass ammonia under the nose. The patient should not be kept in the warm bath longer than five or six minutes.

To excite Inspiration.—During the employment of the above method excite the nostrils with snuff or smelling-salts, or tickle the throat with a feather. Rub the chest and face briskly, and dash cold and hot water alternately on them.

TREATMENT AFTER NATURAL BREATHING HAS BEEN RESTORED.

To induce Circulation and Warmth.—Wrap the patient in dry blankets and commence rubbing the limbs upwards, firmly and energetically. The friction must be continued under the blankets or over the dry clothing.

Promote the warmth of the body by the application of hot flannels, bottles or bladders of hot water, heated bricks, etc., to the pit of the stomach, the armpits, between the thighs, and to the soles of the feet. Warm clothing may generally be obtained from bystanders.

On the restoration of life, when the power of swallowing has returned, a teaspoonful of warm water, small quantities of wine, warm brandy and water, or coffee, should be given. The patient should be kept in bed, and a disposition to sleep encouraged. During reaction large mustard plasters to the chest and below the shoulders will greatly relieve the distressed breathing. Great care is requisite to maintain the restored vital action, and at the

same time to prevent undue excitement. Persevere for at least three or four hours.

Do not be discouraged if you do not produce any good effect at once, but persevere. There have been cases of recovery after suspended animation of *five hours.* You will feel it a glorious reward when you see the dead restored to life through your exertions. [The same plan may be used, except removing the clothes, when a person is suffocated with foul air of any description. In this case, too, cold water should be freely applied to the head. And here I would give you a word of caution. Before entering any old well, sewer, or other place where you may suspect the air to be bad, let down a lighted candle into it. If this will not burn, it is not fit for you to enter. Never use charcoal for warming a room when any one is in it. The gas given off when it is burning is so deadly, that I have seen a husband and wife suffocated in bed, though the charcoal was placed on the hearth.]

FEVER.

When nursing a case of fever, never forget the great subject of ventilation. Change the atmosphere of the room frequently; blow the bad air out of it, and fresh air into it, not only that the patient may have the best possible chance of recovery, but for your own sake and for the sake of others. In every sick room, but especially in case of fever, the chimney should be open; and an open fire should be kept up, even if the weather be quite mild, or if the house have a furnace in it. This is not necessarily so much for heating as for ventilating the room in the best way. If possible, use soft coal in preference to hard. Let the patient's hair be cut short, to enable you to attend to it properly, and it will also tend to keep the head of the sufferer cool and comfortable. When a person is delirious

with fever, the dreams and fancies are almost always of a painful nature, the countenance showing plainly that the mind is troubled. There is a sense of fear, a dread of something which he may not have the power to explain to you. Try in every way to gain his confidence; listen patiently to his complaints, however ridiculous they may appear to you; do not contradict, or tease him with argument. Remember "dreams to the dreamer are realities," and these things terrify him just as much as if they were actually in the room. It is very common for some part of the furniture to take frightful shapes in the eyes of a fever patient. Perhaps he may be able to tell you what it is, but if not, by carefully watching the eyes, you will find him look steadily at one object, and then turn away suddenly, as if he were trying to escape. When these visions are troubling the patient, the best plan, if you can do so, is to remove him into another room. The effect is wonderful. The visions disappear, the dreadful forms are all gone, and the bright and cheerful face tells you better than words what a relief he feels. If you cannot change the room, change the furniture, and if that cannot be done, alter its position.

A singular and yet not uncommon thing in fever with delirium is a strong dislike taken by the patient to a particular person, and this generally not a stranger, but a near relative, one who is greatly beloved by him when in health, and who has been for days and nights watching over him. In some cases this feeling of dislike grows into a hatred so deep that it is not safe to allow the person to remain alone in the room. This is very distressing; it appears so ungrateful, such a poor return for all the care and kindness bestowed upon him, so unnatural, that it is hard to bear. But it should be remembered that it is unnatural; it is the result of disease, and has no more to do with a patient's real affection than taking a dislike to some par-

ticular article of food. As the mind becomes healthy this will pass off; but it is very desirable that the person to whom the dislike is taken should be removed as soon as possible, and not again enter the room till the mind is in a healthier state, or the feeling may become so fixed that it will require a long time to subdue it.

During the great thirst of fever you will frequently find that the patient, particularly a child, will prefer pure water to any other drink; but if you require a change, you will find what is called apple-tea cheap and refreshing. Peel the apples and cut them in very thin slices into a jug with some clean sugar, fill up with boiling water, and let stand till quite cold. The quantity cannot be fixed, as that must depend upon the quality of the fruit. Another pleasant drink is made of the juice of three or four oranges and one lemon in a quart of water with a little sugar. When you cannot easily get either oranges or lemons, buy a small bottle of lime-juice; this will keep good in a cool place for a great length of time; it is very wholesome, and a tablespoonful, with half a pint of water, sweetened, will make a glass of good lemonade in a minute. Perfect silence is not always desirable. It is not a good thing to put on list slippers, and walk about without any noise; if you go up to the bedside of a patient in this way, he may get a severe fright. In talking, the same rule holds good; do not whisper, it will very likely awaken the sleeper, just because it is a strange sound; speak in your natural voice, and it will not arouse him, though it be louder than a whisper, for he hears it every day, and is used to it. Therefore let all every-day sounds go on as usual, *unless complained of by the patient*, and let this reflection comfort you—Sleep in the midst of noise is sounder and more likely to continue than in a dead silence, because slight causes are less likely to disturb it.

Is it well to awaken a patient to give food or medicine? Generally you may conclude that if a patient sleeps he is doing well; but in the sinking stage of fever, or other great debility, it may be needful to give something frequently. After days and nights of watchfulness, where the mind is wandering with fever, the patient will fall into a long sleep, which may last many hours. I have one now enjoying excellent health, who slept in this way thirty-seven hours. This is the turning-point of the disease, and generally the patient awakens with the mind restored, and from that time commences, as it were, a new life.

When fever is once formed, it runs a regular course, like small-pox. We must try to weaken it as much as possible by fresh air, and support life by suitable diet, till the disease has worn itself out. But as a person not accustomed to such things cannot know at the beginning whether the illness be fever or not, you must act only in such a way as to do good if it be fever, and no harm if it be not.

A person, perhaps after getting wet or being exposed to cold, complains of headache, shivering, pains in the limbs, back, and throat; put him to bed and give him some hot drink, soak his feet in hot mustard water, and at night give a dose of castor oil. Having done so much, wait to see if he will not throw off the attack, which may have been but an ordinary cold.

SCARLET FEVER.

It is very desirable that you should be able to distinguish between scarlet fever and measles, for the first is a most fatal disease, and the second, with proper care, will seldom destroy life. There are two kinds of scarlet fever: the mild form, where there is little or no sore

throat, and in which the eruption does not appear till the fourth day, and which, if the child be kept warm, generally passes off without doing any harm; and the malignant, with ulcerated sore throat, which is a dreadful disease, often proving fatal.

The difference between scarlet fever and measles is—

In Scarlet Fever—	*In Measles—*
The eruption is bright scarlet.	The eruption is dark red color.
It appears on the second day.	Does not till the fourth day.
Is quite smooth to the touch.	Is raised.
Is in small round spots.	Is larger and crescent-shaped.
Disappears on pressure.	Does not disappear.
The face is quite dry.	Face swelled, running from the eyes and nose.

Symptoms of Scarlet Fever.—Vomiting, which frequently comes on suddenly while the child is at play. Headache, a feeling of depression and weakness, as if all the strength had gone, and shivering. Next day there is hoarseness, difficulty of swallowing, hot, dry skin, great thirst, the poor child sighs frequently, and complains of pain like needles pricking all over the body. The rash now appears, first in scarlet patches on the face, spreads down the neck and over the body. The tongue is a fiery bright red, like a ripe strawberry. The throat swells, and there is a great difficulty in swallowing. About the fifth day the scarlet color fades and turns brown, and the skin peels off. Never undertake the treatment of this yourself, if you can get proper assistance. Apply hot fomentations constantly to the throat, and give oranges, lemonade, raspberry vinegar and water, black currant tea, or apple tea, for drink. Above all things, keep the child well protected from cold. When the skin begins to peel off, you will find the child constantly picking the nose, lips, and tips of the fingers. It is a curious thing how children in this state seem to feel no pain, but to take

to delight in doing this. No coaxing nor threats will have any effect; your only remedy is to put a pair of mittens or worsted socks on the hands and secure them to the waistbands of the dress; then the fingers and thumb will meet inside the sock without getting hold of the skin.

Keep the child in the house a fortnight after he seems quite well.

This disease, like small-pox, is very infectious. I have known a whole family prostrated by the lady merely standing for two or three minutes in the lobby of an infected house. I also know a case of a nobleman's house, where the whole of the furniture of the room was burnt, the other rooms were repainted and papered, and the house left empty for four months, yet the disease broke out again from using some clothing which had remained in it. Never allow any clothes of a patient to be washed in the house, but always outside; do not pour boiling water on to them and stand over the steam. Fever is not a solitary disease like rheumatism or dropsy, affecting only one person; but when it once fixes itself, it is impossible to tell how many it will attack before it quits the locality; therefore, if you have it in your own house, do not allow any person to enter it, and never yourself go to any such place from idle curiosity; but if it be your duty to go, do your duty without fear, and leave the rest with God.

After scarlet fever or small-pox the sick room and all the articles used in it should be thoroughly disinfected. This may be very thoroughly and well done by closing up the room air-tight, after removing everything wet or moist from it, and then burning sulphur in it—a few ounces on an iron pipkin or kettle with legs. Every person should leave the room after the sulphur is lighted, and it should be left closed for several hours.

MEASLES.

We come to another infectious disease, but one which, with ordinary care, is not fatal, as a general rule.

Symptoms.—The child appears as if it had a cold in the head, sneezing, cough, running at the eyes and nose, itching of the face, the eyes are red, and very sensitive to the light.

On the fourth day small red spots appear on the face, generally in clusters, and then spread. If you examine them carefully, you will find they are not round, but crescent or half-moon shape. In measles the fever increases as the rash comes out. When it has been out three days it turns brown, and the skin crumbles off like bran. The common saying with regard to measles is, "It is three days out, and four days in," that is, that the patient is ill four days before the eruption appears, and that it remains three days. At this stage, diarrhœa frequently occurs.

Let the child be in a room shaded from any strong light. *Keep the chest particularly well protected from cold.* Give plenty of warm weak drinks, such as tea, arrowroot, etc., and if the breathing is difficult, put on a mustard and oat-meal poultice to the chest, and give a small dose of purgative medicine, if needful. In general this is all that is required, if you only protect the child from getting cold. But if the disease is not running its usual course, and more than this is needful, you will need good medical advice.

SMALL-POX.

In the ten years from 1856 to 1866, fifty thousand persons have died of small-pox in England, of which number nine thousand four hundred and twenty-five perished in

one year; that is to say, five thousand lives are sacrificed every year by stupidity and neglect.

The symptoms, when small-pox first comes on, are fever, pains in the limbs and back, headache, vomiting, and pain on pressing the pit of the stomach.

On the third day, small red spots appear on the face and head; these gradually rise and enlarge, the eruption spreads over the whole body, into the ears, eyes, nose, mouth, and throat. The hands, feet, and face swell, there is great difficulty in swallowing; by the eighth day the face is a mass of pocks. In severe cases the eyes are often seriously affected and the sight sometimes lost. On the eleventh day the sores discharge and form a dry crust, which gradually dries and falls off. This is the time when it so frequently proves fatal. In seventeen to twenty days the disease may be said to have run its course.

Small-pox, when once taken, moves on by fixed laws, and nothing you can do will either cut it short or cure it; it must go through its regular stages. Still, you may be very useful. In the first place, cut the hair close, for it is impossible for you to brush it after the pocks have risen. To prevent pitting, you must keep the light from the patient's face, either by covering it with a piece of something black—say silk—with holes cut in it for the mouth and nostrils; or by keeping the room dark. Anoint the parts with sweet oil to prevent itching. Covering the face is better than darkening the room—it is more convenient for the attendants, and has a better effect upon the skin. The part of the body covered by the clothes is scarcely marked in comparison with the parts exposed—as the face and hands.

Remember, that this disease is dreadfully infectious; so look well after ventilation, read over carefully the directions I gave when writing about the sick room, and send for the doctor.

As we know to a slight extent the ravages of this dreadful disease, and poverty and misery caused by it, it is plainly the duty of every one of us to do our utmost to prevent it; and the only way to do this is by vaccination. Vaccination either prevents the person taking it at all, or, if it be taken, changes it from a terribly fatal complaint into one which scarcely ever destroys life or sight, or injures the patient in any way. I have myself had numbers of patients who have been completely covered with the modified eruption—inside the eyelids, ears, nose, mouth, and in the throat—but *I have never yet seen a person die, or lose the sight, or be disfigured, who had been properly and successfully vaccinated.*

This, then, is your duty. Get yourself and children vaccinated; let no foolish person persuade you against it; and if small-pox breaks out near you, have it done again. It takes very little time, it gives so little pain, that it may be done without awaking a child out of its sleep, and it need not keep you from your usual employment. Let me entreat you not to neglect this, the only known precaution; if you do, you commit a great crime, for you not only run the risk of taking the disease yourself, but of infecting the neighborhood in which you live

CHOLERA.

ASIATIC CHOLERA.

This terrible disease sweeps over the land at times like a destroying angel, leaving houses desolate, and hurrying thousands unprepared into the grave. It is of the utmost importance that you should be able to distinguish between common purging and true cholera. In common looseness, you have two kinds—one where the motions are a dirty pipe-clay color, and very offensive, showing too little bile; in the other, a bright yellow color, with some

burning, smarting pain, showing too much bile—what is called bilious purging.

Symptoms of True Cholera. For one or perhaps for two days, there is gentle purging; if not stopped it quickly runs on to the next stage. What now passes from the bowels is not offensive, it is like rice water or very thin gruel, and all control over the bowels is lost. It gives no pain, there is no straining, though there may be very severe cramps. In a few hours all strength is gone, the body, the tongue, and even the breath are quite cold, the nails turn blue, there is great thirst, perhaps constant vomiting; the eyes sink more in a few hours than they would do in months of ordinary illness, and the most remarkable change takes place in the voice. It becomes a small squeaking whisper, so unnatural and so peculiar that any one who has seen much of cholera could distinguish it in a moment by the voice alone.

There is no cure for cholera when it once takes hold of the system; every description of medicine likely to do good has been tried by the most skilful physicians, but so far we know of no remedy. The time to do good is in the *early stage.* Commence at once; let the patient get to bed, apply hot bricks and fomentations to the extremities and mustard plasters to the bowels. He may also at first take some hot drink to try to bring on perspiration. In the absence of a physician an adult may take ten drops of laudanum and ten of spirits of camphor. A child of ten years five of each; a child of five years three drops of each, and these doses may be repeated every twenty minutes as long as diarrhœa or pain or vomiting continues. This may save time, but in all cases send for a physician at once.

All damp, dirty places, particularly where the water is not good, are most likely to be visited by it.

People who are dirty and intemperate have less chance of recovery than others.

All the discharges of a person ill with cholera should be at once removed from the room, and the utensils and clothing thoroughly scalded with boiling water.

Cholera Morbus.—The attack of cholera morbus is very apt to occur at night. It is marked by sudden and severe vomiting, followed by purging and accompanied by severe cramps, generally in the bowels. These are temporarily relieved by the evacuations. Another feature is thirst. At the same time the skin is quite cool. Generally speaking, one would recover from the attack without medical aid, though at the cost of much suffering, which timely treatment may prevent. Let the person go to bed, put a mustard plaster on the bowels, and stay on his back till the vomiting and purging have stopped for several hours. He may take the laudanum and camphor as directed for Asiatic cholera, but not oftener than after every movement of the bowels, instead of every twenty minutes. When the stomach begins to crave food, a cup of hot tea will probably throw him into a perspiration, and before that he should take nothing but the medicine and little bits of ice.

BOWEL COMPLAINTS.

Diarrhœa occurs every summer, and is frequently fatal to young children. Because it is common at the same time of the year that fruit is, it is generally thought that eating fruit is the cause of it. It is said to come in with the plum season: so it does, but not because of the plums, or infants at the breast would not so frequently die of it. Ripe, sound fruit, in its proper season, does no harm, but great good; but sour, unripe, or half-decayed fruit or vegetables are little better than poison; so

I would say, eat of the fruit of every tree which is good for the use of man, but have patience till it is ripe, and do not use any part which is decayed or rotting. When this complaint appears, it should be attended to, not always stopped immediately, for it is often an effort of nature to throw off something which is better away; but if allowed to run on, it becomes serious.

Now comes the important question,—How to know when to stop the action of the bowels, and when to assist them. You may take this as a good general rule. If what passes from the bowels be very offensive, or if they have not been sufficiently acted upon for some days, then clear them out with a dose of castor-oil before you give anything else.

In the case of a child it will be as well to use the spiced syrup of rhubarb instead of castor oil. A teaspoonful may be given an infant. In any case, put the child to bed, pin a flannel bandage tightly round the bowels, and give no food whatever for some hours. Perfect quiet upon the back is of the utmost importance. These latter directions should be followed out in all cases of bowel complaints, of whatever kind.

If there is pain in the bowels, apply either a mustard plaster or else treat as follows: Make a common dinner plate or small dish quite hot, lay on some folds of flannel wrung out of hot water, place the hot plate over this, taking care that the edges do not extend beyond the flannel; then cover with a dry towel. By having two plates, one at the fire while the other is in use, you can change them in a moment, and get any amount of heat you require without the weight of a large poultice.

After the operation of the purgative medicine our great reliance must be upon opium, and laudanum may be given in the doses recommended under the head of cholera, after each passage. But you should not give

laudanum or even paregoric to a baby, except by direction of a physician.

Dysentery commences with fever and hot dry skin. The child will perhaps scream as if in a fright, and be delirious, or have cold shiverings; afterwards a continual desire to go to stool, with straining pain in the lower part of the bowels. What passes is very small in quantity, like jelly, streaked with blood. When you see this, have the best advice you can get. If you are obliged to act for yourself, adopt this plan:—

Unless you are quite sure the bowels have acted properly within the last two days, give a dose of castor oil. But the part of the treatment most to be relied upon is this:—Make a little thin starch, and to one tablespoonful of this add one drop of laudanum, and with a small syringe squirt this up into the child's bowels, and keep it there as long as possible. This should be used two or three times in the twenty-four hours. Increase the quantity of laudanum by one drop for each year of the child's age up to five; but, as I remarked before, for this complaint secure the assistance of a doctor if within your reach.

Great care should be taken to scald with boiling water the vessel or bedpan used by a person having dysentery, as this disease may be conveyed by the evacuations. In dysentery, as also in cholera, the privy vaults and water-closets should be disinfected by a solution of copperas (sulphate of iron) poured into them daily. Eight or ten pounds to five gallons of water makes a proper solution for the purpose.

Colic, or pains in the bowels without purging, commonly called gripes. You may generally relieve this by applying hot fomentations, and giving a dose of castor oil with plenty of spice, such as grated nutmeg, cinnamon, etc.

HOOPING COUGH AND CROUP.

Hooping Cough does not show itself decidedly in two or three days, like scarlet fever or measles. At first there are merely the symptoms of a slight cold. The child has a short, dry cough, particularly when taking food. This will go on for a week, or perhaps nearly a fortnight, before you hear the peculiar sound, which you cannot mistake. The fit of coughing is preceded by a sort of convulsive drawing in of the breath, which, as it rushes into the chest, causes the whoop. The cough lasts for about a minute, and generally ends in vomiting. The breathing is then quiet, and the child appears pretty comfortable till the approach of the next fit. In children under two years of age this disease is more dangerous than in older ones.

If the child should have convulsions, seek advice immediately. In milder cases, you will find that time and plenty of fresh air in fine weather will bring about a cure. If the breathing be very bad, put a good hot mustard and oatmeal poultice on the chest; and if the chest is a good deal stuffed and the child does not often vomit after the coughing fit, a teaspoonful of syrup of ipecac may be given with advantage. When the complaint has gone on for some weeks, change of air is the only thing which can be depended upon for stopping it. If you allow the child to get cold while it has this complaint, you cannot reasonably expect it to recover.

Croup requires immediate attention, for if neglected it may destroy life in one or two days. It commences with hoarseness and short dry cough. The difficulty of breathing quickly increases, and soon becomes very distressing; the child fights for breath, and seems to require all its strength to force the air in and out of the chest. The face is flushed, the voice and breathing make

a peculiar sound, which it is almost impossible to describe, but which, if you once hear, you will never forget: it is a sort of a rasping, grating, choking sound, and the voice, when the child speaks, is something like the noise of a fowl when caught in the hand. I would recommend all mothers who have not seen croup to do so, if there be a case of it within reach, and then they will be able to distinguish it from the choking sound of mumps or common sore throat.

Night or day, send at once for a doctor. Till the doctor comes, proceed in this way: Give one or two teaspoonfuls of syrup of ipecacuanha; if needful, repeat it every fifteen minutes and give warm water to drink till the child vomits plentifully; put the feet into hot water and mustard till the skin is quite red, and a good large poultice, made with two parts oatmeal or bran and one part mustard, well up to the throat, and keep it on till it reddens the skin. Three hours after the vomiting, give the child a teaspoonful of water with two drops of syrup of ipecac in it, for each year of its age, up to ten drops; that is, for a child one year old, two drops; four years old, eight drops; and so on. Repeat this two or three times in the twenty-four hours. The object is to keep the child constantly feeling sick, just on the point of vomiting. If the breathing be not relieved the first day, you must repeat the vomiting, or the throat may close up and the child be suffocated. Mix in a tea-cup equal parts of molasses and good common vinegar; let it stand where it will keep just warm, and give the child a small teaspoonful frequently; you may put more or less of each article according to the strength of the vinegar, as the child finds agreeable. For croup and all descriptions of sore throat, there is no remedy equal to this old-fashioned, simple mixture. To save a child when taken ill with croup, you must attack it at once, and act decidedly.

Always obtain advice if you can. Delays are dangerous, but by acting upon these directions you will have done all you can safely till the doctor comes.

In any case of difficulty of breathing or pain in the chest you may always safely apply a mustard and oatmeal or bran poultice till the skin is red (and it reddens in a very few minutes in young children), but never apply leeches or a blister to a child without the doctor's advice.

COMMON COLD AND INFLUENZA.

The best plan to adopt with a common COLD, is to restore the proper action of the skin as soon as possible.

Various methods may be used: for instance, a person feels that peculiar warning, which makes him say, "Now I'm in for a cold, I feel it coming on—headache, chilly, creeping feeling of the skin, and a state of miserableness generally." If he can manage it, let him go at once and take a Turkish or common vapor bath. Or if he can spare the time, let him go to bed, take ten grains of Dover's powder, with a little sugar, put a large hot bran or oatmeal poultice all over his chest, and in an hour after the powder take a pint of hot tea, or thin gruel, and put on an extra blanket or two. The next morning he should be well rubbed all over with a coarse towel, and take a Seidlitz powder or a large teaspoonful of Epsom salts, either of them, in warm water. But suppose it comes on when business must be attended to. Let him put on an extra quantity of clothing, drink a pint of hot tea, and take a quick walk till the skin is quite damp with perspiration, then cool down gradually. If a person has cold, not very bad, but what is called "hanging about them," a pint of cold water at bedtime, and a little extra bedclothes, will be an excellent remedy without any medicine. But whichever plan you adopt, do not half do it; if you are obliged to

give way, do it thoroughly, stay in bed from twelve to twenty-four hours, and give the cold a check. If you are compelled to go out, put on plenty of clothing, work hard at your business, and bustle about as much as possible.

INFLUENZA.—I do not know any complaint which produces such depression of spirits as this. I have had strong, able men, such as "navvies," who work out in all weath ers, come and ask me if they were likely to die soon, they felt so "down." Any one attacked with Influenza should give up at once, remain in bed, and encourage perspiration by every means in his power. If it can be had, the Dover's powder should be taken, as in common colds, and repeated if needful, and either with or without this, I have found the following preparation of milk very useful. It is called wine whey, made by putting two wineglassfuls of white wine and one teaspoonful of vinegar to a pint of milk; simmer it very gently so as not to break the curd, then strain and sweeten. If you are in the country, get the whey direct from the dairy. If you are not able to get wine, use rum in the sweet milk. There is no objection to the use of a little spice to give an agreeable flavor. Either of these may be given in divided quantities very frequently, and are generally very pleasant to the patient.

FITS.

Fits in children generally arise from teething, worms, or some other substance irritating the stomach and bowels, or from something wrong with the brain. Supposing a fit has come on, and you have no physician at hand, apply cloths dipped in hot mustard and water or turpentine, to the feet and the lower part of the legs till the skin is quite reddened, and cold water to the head. While doing this, have one, two, or three teaspoonsful of syrup of ipecacuanha, or mustard and warm water ready; watch for an op-

portunity, and get a sufficient quantity swallowed to produce vomiting. When this is over, the child will most likely take a long sleep. When you are sufficiently calm after your painful task, for it is very painful to see a little one in such a state, it becomes your duty to endeavor to find out the cause, and so, if possible, prevent a return. If it be the teeth, lancing the gums may be needful; if from the stomach, a purgative dose; if from worms, the treatment as given in page 97. But perhaps the brain is at fault. You should therefore procure the best advice you can, and do not take the responsibility upon yourself. But if away from medical assistance, a great deal can be done by keeping the brain free from excitement, strictly attending to the digestion, and carefully guarding the child from eating any of the numerous articles called "trash," which they seem to eat for no earthly reason but that they are not fit for them.

In adults, you will meet with apoplexy, epilepsy, and other seizures. In nearly every case these are so sudden, that it is not possible for you to procure a doctor; and, therefore, it is all the more needful for you to have an answer to the question, "Can I do anything? and, if so, what is the best thing to do?" Well, then, the best thing you can do, in a fit of any description is, first, to loosen the clothing, stays, collar, necktie, cap string, or whatever there may be. Suppose it be Apoplexy. In many cases this is so quickly fatal that your services will be useless; but, if not, you will find the face flushed—nearly purple, the breathing labored, like very deep snoring; and all power gone from the limbs. After loosening the clothes, raise the head and shoulders well up, but be careful not to bend the neck forward on to the breast. Apply cold to the head, and warmth to the feet. If you know that the person has taken a meal shortly before the attack, give mustard and water, or any other emetic at hand. After this has oper-

ated, a dose of purgative medicine or an injection. If a sufficient quantity of fluid cannot be swallowed, and you cannot excite vomiting by tickling the throat, etc., get from the apothecary two drops of croton oil, on a small bit of sugar or butter, and put it on the tongue, and, if possible, get it swallowed; if you be away from an apothecary, or have not the oil, you must wait till you can give some ordinary purgative. Any person, with a stout habit of body, or short neck and florid, crimson countenance, should carefully avoid all descriptions of food likely to disagree with him, and never eat a heavy meal, particularly near bedtime.

In EPILEPSY you have convulsive working of the muscles of the face and limbs, and also very frequently biting the tongue—quite different from the stupid, heavy, drunken-like state of apoplexy. All that you can do during the fit is to protect the patient from injury, and get a piece of india-rubber, a towel, or handkerchief, between the teeth, so as not to stop the breathing, but to protect the tongue. After recovery, endeavor to find if possible the cause, and let that, whether it be particular kinds of diet, occupation, or excitement, be abstained from. Sometimes a simple remedy, such as tying a bandage tightly round a leg or arm, will prevent an attack; but generally the seizure is too sudden to allow time for anything to be done. The cause and treatment of this sad complaint are far beyond the limits of this little book, and the remedies are such as ought not to be used, excepting under the watchful care of a physician. All that you can do is to guard your patient against injury, and to avoid the cause—if you know it.

MISCELLANEOUS.

ULCERS OF THE LEG.—It is not an uncommon thing in country districts to find persons who have been afflicted

with ulcers for a long time. They will tell you that they have poulticed with nearly every herb that ever grew, and used ointments made of almost every subrtance which can be found either on the earth, or in the earth, or in the waters under the earth; yet they never show the slightest inclination to heal, but gradually become worse, till at last the constitution breaks down under the constant irritation, the drain, and the loss of exercise and sleep.

No dressings will ever heal them without proper support. Cut strips of sticking-plaster, so long that they will nearly, but not quite, meet round the leg, and as broad as two fingers. See that the parts are clean and dry; warm the plaster, take one end of it in each hand, fix one end on the sound part, pull the plaster down hard and tight across the wound, and see that it does not slip; begin at the bottom, two inches below the wound, and go up to two inches above it, letting the edge of each piece overlap the one below it half an inch, exactly like slates on the roof of a house. *Then put on a bandage, rather tightly, but evenly, from the toes to the knee, and let the leg be kept up.* The plasters must be changed once a week, or oftener, as soon as they become loose or offensive, but not before. Never touch this or any other sore, when it is healing, with a rag, but pour the water on to it.

The secret of curing these obstinate places is in giving support by the plaster and bandage. To do this the plaster must be pulled tight across the sore.

Boils and Carbuncles are considered to show poverty of the blood, and should have a good diet, by which, however, I don't mean rich food, to cure them. But a boil, however painful, is not dangerous, and seldom requires more than a poultice, or a plaster of resin ointment, or the old-fashioned but excellent soap and sugar. A boil is a single lump, containing either soft matter or a harder substance called a core. When this is discharged,

the place heals up, and the person feels little the worse. A carbuncle is a much larger sore, sometimes two or three inches wide, composed of cells like a honeycomb. The nape of the neck is a very frequent spot for one to appear. They are most painfully sensitive; the patient dreads the slightest touch, or even breathing upon it. If you meet with a case of this description, seek advice at once, and, in the meanwhile, poultice and give the best diet you can.

Whitlow or Felon.—Though in itself a small affair, there are few things which cause such suffering, and which are so neglected and allowed to have their own way. Surgeons are constantly meeting with people who have lost bones of the finger or thumb, and have stiff joints from this cause. At the commencement great relief is sometimes obtained by soaking the part in the following mixture: take half a gill of strong vinegar, and dissolve in it a tablespoonful of saleratus (carbonate of potash). Let it be used as hot as can be borne, and repeat as often as the pain returns; but if matter be formed there are two ways of treating it; one by allowing the matter to destroy the parts and find its own way out, generally around the nail; this takes from two to six weeks of severe suffering; the other is by making a small opening down to the bone tc allow the matter to escape, which takes one moment to do, gives relief in an hour, and can be done without giving any pain. It is a great pity for any one so to fear the very slight operation as to lose the use of a thumb for life, and if near a surgeon or a public institution there is in the present day no excuse. In either case a poultice must be constantly applied.

In-growing Nails.—Some people are much troubled with the edges of the nail of a toe cutting into the flesh. The cause is, pressure on the nail, which is strong and round, so that the edges are driven directly downwards.

Take a bit of broken window-glass, and scrape the arch of the nail, till it is so thin and weak that it cannot resist the pressure, and as a natural consequence, it will flatten and become wider.

Bed Sores.—Perhaps many persons will be shocked when I tell them that scores of people die, when long confined to bed, not of the disease or accident, but of sores caused by neglect; and in numbers of cases neither patient nor nurse has any idea of what is going on. Particularly in fevers, the patient's mind is not in a state to complain of a slight pain, therefore such sores must be sought for by the nurse, and prevented. They generally form about the bottom of the back, and about the hips. The constant pressure of the body causes a slight redness at first, and if attended to then the mischief may be stopped; but if allowed to go on, the part dies, and leaves a sore which too frequently takes away all chance of recovery. Examine carefully every day, bathe the parts with spirit and water, and take off the pressure, first by altering the position, if possible, and secondly, by making little pillows or pads, and placing them so as to bear the weight. The india rubber air cushions and rings are the best for this purpose. Unless you do this, all treatment you can adopt will be of no avail.

Tooth-ache, Ear-ache, Pain in the Face.—Fill the ear on the painful side with laudanum, and plug it with a little wool or lint. To do this properly the person should lay the head on a table with the bad side upwards; you need not fear putting too much in, it will do no harm. First warm the laudanum, by letting the bottle stand for a few minutes in warm water. Laudanum will not cure tooth-ache when the tooth is decayed, but it will frequently give relief and a good night's rest, till you can have it properly attended to.

Things in the Eye.—Bits of cinder, insects, chippings

of metal or stone, frequently get fixed in the eye, generally under the upper lid. Shut the eye, pass a bodkin under the lid, press gently upon it with your finger, and pushing outwards, against the lid, with the bodkin, sweep the little nuisance into the inner corner of the eye. In steam-vessels, where cases of cinder in the eye are constantly occurring, I have found this plan almost always succeed. If you have not a bodkin, you can use the head of a smooth pin, or any small, smooth article; or pull the lid away from the eye, put a little slip of writing paper under the lid, press gently upon it and draw it away. Simply lifting the upper lid away from the eyeball by taking hold of the eyelashes and drawing it down over the lower lid will often suffice. Sometimes a small chipping of iron gets fixed on the ball of the eye, and engineers are often very expert in removing them with the point of a penknife. But if you can get a good magnet, it will draw away the chip of iron without any risk of injuring the eye. It will be safer however to go to an oculist for such cases.

THINGS IN THE NOSE AND EAR.—Any one accustomed to children, knows how apt they are to push small articles, such as peas, beans, and pebbles, into these places. If in the nose, take a pair of small pliers, or a pair of scissors with blunt points; put the points into the nostril, and then open them gently, across the face—you will be able to stretch the nostril without giving pain; at the same time, put the finger above the substance and press it downwards—*not* the finger and thumb, so as to pinch the nose. If this does not answer, draw out the scissors and tickle the inside of the nose, or give a very small pinch of snuff, so as to make the child sneeze. Syringing with warm water is the best and the only safe way for you to use to remove such things from the ear. If that fails go to a surgeon at once. Peas and beans are of more consequence than stones or metal substances, for they soon swell with

the moisture and warmth of the place. I have myself known a pea left in the nostril of a poor neglected child till it began to sprout; fortunately by that time it had become so soft that it was easily broken down and removed, and the ulcer prevented coming through the side. In case of any insect getting into the ear, fill it with oil, and the insect will die immediately.

Choking.—Bits of meat or bone—particularly fish-bone—become fixed in the throat, and according to the size, produce either suffocation (choking) or troublesome tickling cough.

Treatment.—If the person be choking, give a smart slap with the open hand between the shoulders. In nine cases out of ten the sudden compression of the air in the chest will shoot the substance out of the mouth; but if not, look into the throat, and see if there be anything you can reach with your finger and thumb or a large blunt-pointed pair of scissors, and pull it out. If you do not succeed in this, take a silver or pewter tablespoon, bend it a little, and push it down the throat. Keep quite to the back of the throat, and you will do no harm. If there be a doctor near, send to him. But this is a case which admits of no delay, and the life hangs upon your coolness and quickness of action.

If it be only a small substance in the throat, and the person can swallow, give plenty of bread or potato and a drink of water after it. If this is not sufficient, give a teaspoonful of mustard and warm water, or any other emetic you have at hand; and after the person has vomited, you will generally find it all right. If you do not succeed, send for a surgeon.

Sunstroke.—This is a sudden prostration due to long exposure to great heat, especially when one is much fatigued or exhausted. It commonly happens from undue exposure to the sun's rays in summer, but I have seen the same ef-

fects produced in a baker from the great heat of the bake-room. It begins with pain in the head or dizziness, quickly followed by loss of consciousness and complete prostration. Sometimes, however, the attack is as sudden as a stroke of apoplexy. The head is often burning hot, the face dark and swollen, the breathing labored and snoring, and the extremities cold. Take the patient at once to a cool and shady place, but don't carry him far to a house or hospital. Loosen the clothes thoroughly about his neck and waist. Lay him down with the head a little raised. Apply wet cloths to the head, and mustard or turpentine to the calves of the legs and the soles of the feet. Give a little weak whiskey and water if he can swallow. Meanwhile let some one go for the doctor. You cannot safely do more than I have said without his advice.

PEOPLE BEING FROZEN.

Whether the whole body or only a part is affected, the principle of the treatment is the same.

Avoid a sudden change. If a person be found quite benumbed with cold, if you take him direct to a fire you may perhaps destroy life; a barn, a shed, or a room, which feels very cold to you, is warm enough at first. Remove the clothes if wet, and rub the body dry, put him into blankets, and give a little warm wine and water, or weak spirit and water, or tea; after a while, remove him to a warmer room, but still not near a fire, and so gradually increase the warmth.

If you should ever be so situated in intensely cold weather as not to be able to reach a place of shelter, and find your strength failing, look out for a snowdrift on the side of a hill away from the wind; or if on a plain, try to find a hollow filled up with snow; scrape a hole large enough for your body and creep into it, then you are comparative-

ly safe: the snow will shelter you from the wind and keep you warm. Human beings and sheep have lain for days in this way, and been saved. But never forget the first warning of danger. If you feel a desire to sleep, and give way to it in the open country, it will be the sleep of death; you must keep in motion, however painful, or perish.

But there is another effect of cold, which is generally caused by standing or walking against a very cold wind, which is called being *nipped.* I have seen a person suddenly seized with great pain in the bowels, drawn together with cramp, the hands so swollen as to require the gloves to be cut off, and with intense headache. The same treatment answers: gradual warmth, very small quantities of warm stimulants, and, after a while, hot flannel to the painful parts.

Frost Bites attack the extremities and projecting parts of the body, hands, feet, nose, ears. They are frequently so rapid and free from pain, that a person is not aware of anything being wrong. In Canada, when meeting a friend in the street, I have both given and taken the caution, "Mind your nose, sir, it looks whitish." The blood, you know, when warm, is fluid, but when it is cold forms a solid clot—and you also know that when water or other liquid freezes, it expands, and so breaks water bottles and jugs, and it also becomes lighter. Now, precisely the same thing takes place in frost bites; the blood in the part gets cold and runs slowly, then stops, all the little blood-vessels are choked and swollen, you apply heat and burst them, causing dreadful suffering and troublesome wounds; or if you do nothing, the circulation is quite stopped, and the part dies or mortifies.

Treatment.—Keep the person away from all heat; if you can, get clean snow and rub the parts constantly with it; or if you cannot find snow get the coldest water. Let

the patient himself rub if possible, for the exertion will keep him sufficiently warm. You must continue this rubbing for hours in severe cases, till you get the parts quite soft, and something near the natural color. You must not allow any complaints or feeling of compassion to stop your rubbing, or to cause you to bring him into a warm room. Put on extra clothing, or let him have a run for a minute, but do not come near a fire. After you have done this, anoint well with sweet oil or lard, or lime water and oil, and wrap up well with flannel.

If you should have any sores, dress them the same as burns. We had one case on board a steamer, which happily caused more amusement than suffering. The men were busy in the very dirty employment of removing ashes. One of the engineers, being off duty, had dressed himself in his shore clothes ready for a walk. After standing some time talking, one of the men noticed the white patch on his cheek, and instantly gathering a handful of snow, commenced rubbing vigorously. In his eagerness to benefit his friend, he had forgotten the state of his hands, till the snow began to melt, which gave a extraordinary mottled black and white look to the engineer's face, and little ink-like streams trinkled down his best clothes.

Chilblains are in truth the same in every way as frost bites, but in a milder form. They are more troublesome than dangerous, though in persons of weak circulation, or if neglected, they cause sores which last through the winter.

Prevention is better than cure. The only way to prevent them is to wear warm clothing on the hands and feet, keep up the circulation by exercise, and above all things not to bring them suddenly from cold to great heat. This is the whole secret of prevention. When they are formed, but not broken, rub well two or three times a day with equal parts of turpentine and laudanum,

or equal parts of camphorated spirit and soap liniment, or sweet oil and spirits of turpentine, or with an ointment made of a teaspoonful of dry mustard and an ounce of lard. Any of these are good, but if the skin be broken do not use them, but dress them just like a sore after a burn, or with the old-fashioned but excellent application of chalk and tallow; but it is not safe to use the grease of candles, as chemicals are so much used in making them, but take a little mutton tallow, melt it and while warm mix it with whiting till it is a proper thickness for use. Either of these will give almost immediate relief.

BATHS, BATHING, ETC.

Among these miscellaneous hints I may say a few words about BATHS and BATHING. Cleanliness not only helps the doctor, but would often prevent the necessity of sending for him. "Cleanliness is next to godliness" is a very old saying. To speak of a dirty Christian seems a contradiction. It is better for the body, better for the soul, and better for those around us, to be clean. I do not mean to find fault with the small particles of what a man works amongst which clings to him, such as coal to the collier, or iron-filings to the smith. That is not dirt, but merely the livery of his trade. If you reside in a large town you can have a bath for a trifle; but if not, have a good scrub down or a swim whenever you have the chance.

COLD BATHING should not be used directly after a meal, nor when you are wet with perspiration, nor without advice when you are ill. As soon as the bather begins to shiver, or the nails turn blue, it is time to stop. Always wet the head first, or as quickly as possible before the feet get cold. In every case rub the skin after bathing till it is warm.

The Shower Bath can be easily made by pouring water through a cullender held above the head by another person. But do not use it without advice, for it is a powerful remedy.

A Vapor Bath is very useful in cutting short an attack of rheumatism or severe influenza cold; and if applied early, may prevent weeks of suffering, especially in grown-up people, and where there are no conveniences for a warm bath. Have the bed and body-linen ready, warm; lay a bit of carpet on the floor; let the patient sit on a chair with a wood or cane bottom; fasten a large blanket round his neck, to reach well down to the floor; place a bucket, two-thirds full of hot water under it; have ready two bricks hot in the fire; put one into the bucket, and cover the patient well up with the blanket, like a small tent; let no cold air get in; if needful, put in the other brick, and in a short time you will have the skin streaming with perspiration; rub dry with hot towels; put on night-clothes, and then get to bed.

A Warm Bath for a Child (not an Infant).—Fill a tub two-thirds full of warm water, so as not to flow over when the child is put in, and wrap the child in a small blanket—keep this on while in the bath to protect it from draughts of cold air. Mothers who have not tried this plan have no idea how it takes away fear from a young child, and adds to its comfort. In trying the heat of water, poultices or fomentations for a child, do not trust to your hand, which is hardened by exposure and work; but to some part more sensitive, such as your arm or cheek.

USEFUL HINTS.

In any complaint where there is much perspiration do not go directly from a cold or frosty air to the bedside. In Rheumatic Fever the skin of a patient is particular-

ly sensitive, and you may cause a chill which may have a bad effect; better wait in another room for a few minutes. There is no complaint which requires so much gentleness as this. A person in health can form no idea of the suffering. There is not only racking pain in every joint, but a dread of being touched, or of the slightest breath of air. Even when not within three or four feet of the patient, he will cry out to you not to tread upon him. The banging of a door, shutting a window down violently, letting anything fall,—all sudden noises must be carefully guarded against.

In CHANGING THE DRESS of a patient suffering from rheumatism, or any sore on the arms or upper part of the body, there is often great and unnecessary distress caused by getting the arms in and out of the sleeves of the shirt or night-dress, or even a chemise, when fitted closely to the chest. If the nursing be likely to continue long, it adds very greatly to the comfort of both patient and attendant, to cut open the sleeves and one side of the garment, and put on small strings of tape, just as is done with the sleeves of a man's coat when an arm is broken, but nearer together. Generally with a long sleeve the wristband may be left uncut, and the garment not opened lower than the waist, but this must be determined by the requirements of the case. In cases of extreme debility, where it is not safe for the patient to be raised even for a moment, all risk and inconvenience may be avoided by cutting open both the dress which is in wear, and the fresh one, and lifting the patient on to it just as is done in changing the bed-clothes. This plan does not destroy or injure the clothes in any way, it is merely the seams which require to be ripped, and they can be sewn again for ordinary use.

Any one who has seen LEECHES used knows how difficult it is sometimes to get them to bite readily; and the

old nurses can tell you how they seemed to be possessed with a spirit of contradiction. They will either refuse to bite at all, or will fasten anywhere but on the desired spot. All sorts of instructions are given in books, but most of them are useless. A leech partakes to some extent of the nature of a fish, that is, it lives in water; and therefore, instead of holding them in a warm hand or a dry towel, act in this way:—First wash the place perfectly clean, then put your leeches into a wineglass, and fill it with water; put a piece of paper over it, turn the glass upside down on to the place where you want them to fix, and draw the paper away; you will find now that the leeches being in their native element, are cool and comfortable, and will settle instantly, thereby saving a great amount of vexation and loss of time. As soon as they have taken hold, place a towel round the glass to soak up the water, and remove it. In this way you get them exactly where you wish, either all on one spot or distributed over a larger space, by putting on only one or two at a time. If you require one on a very particular spot, for instance, close to the eye, and have not a proper leech-glass, put its tail first into a small narrow phial filled with water. Where they have to be used inside the mouth, nostrils, etc., it is better to pass a needleful of thread through the tail to hold by; it will not prevent them biting; and if one should be swallowed, drink a little salt and water, which is poisonous to them. Leeches are always expensive, but with a little care they need not be destroyed. When they come off do not dip them into salt; put them into a large jar of water, with an inch or two of turf or garden soil; change the water every day for the first week, then once a week will be sufficient; in this way they will clear themselves and recover. Any dead ones must be removed, or they will spoil the water and destroy the others.

There is a secret in HANDLING A BROKEN OR SORE LIMB. Never take hold with the points of the fingers as if you were afraid of it, and keep your patient in fear lest you should let it fall. Take a firm grasp, let the limb rest on the palm of your hand, and support it with your thumb and fingers. All shaking, nervous handling of a limb is misery to the sufferer. In the case of bones being broken, it is better to place one hand below and the other above the fracture to keep it level. For these and many other cases you require what surgeons call a

cradle to support the weight of the bed-clothes. Any handy man can make one with two straight pieces of wood, and two or three hoops off a flour barrel.

Some people are very subject to SORE THROAT, and where it has once happened, a slight cause is sufficient to bring it on again, and if neglected it frequently runs on to ulceration. You may almost always check this, if at the very commencement you apply a wet bandage in this way: Take a piece of linen or calico the breadth of four fingers and three or four feet long, dip this into cold water, then squeeze it gently and apply it round the neck, cover with a fold or two of flannel or a woollen stocking, and let it be kept on all night. And for a gargle you will find the following very valuable:—Put into a jug a handful of dry sage leaves, two tablespoonfuls of salt, four tablespoonfuls of vinegar, and one teaspoonful of cayenne pepper; pour upon these a pint of boiling water, cover up close, and after standing half an hour, pour clear off through a bit of muslin into a bottle.

I wish now to draw the attention of all who are trying how to help the doctor, to the subject of the FIRST WALK after serious illness. This is a far more important matter than it appears to be. It would be quite safe to say, that in ninety cases out of every hundred it is

overdone, and the patient made worse instead of better, for the very simple reason that there is no thought of the fatigue of coming back again. The usual plan is for the patient to walk away from the house till he feels tired, then turn towards home, where he arrives faint and exhausted. Never forget this simple truth: every step taken by an invalid after he is fatigued does injury. Therefore, when you are out with a patient for the first walk, instead of saying to him, "Do you feel tired now?" say, "How tired will you be when you have done this over again?"

When a patient is sufficiently well to sit up in bed, a shawl is very inconvenient. The ends dip into the food, and are constantly irritating the patient by getting on to the bit of work going on. Then, again, it must be either fastened so tightly round the body as to confine the arms, or if they are used, it must be raised so that both they and the chest are exposed. Instead of this, I would strongly recommend an article I have for many years used amongst my own patients, that is a flannel jacket, made very loose about the shoulders and arms and to button from the neck down the front and at the wrists. The neck and wrist-bands should be lined with silk or other soft material so as not to chafe the skin. Let there be two good pockets, one for the handkerchief and the other for the spectacles, eye-glass, pencil, thimble, and other small things which are always going astray. The season of the year, the kind of room, and nature of the illness, will guide you as to the warmth, and your means as to quality. This is quite a distinct thing from the common long dressing-gown used when a person is out of bed. If you use quite new flannel, it should be well washed with hot water and soap before being made up, or the smell may be very offensive to a person confined to bed.

Scarcely a week passes without some life being lost by

having either WRONG MEDICINE given or an improper dose, or some liniment, lotion, or poisonous disinfecting fluid, instead of medicine. And therefore, in every case where you undertake to help the doctor, see that the lables on the bottles are distinctly written, and that you know without any doubt which is to be swallowed. It is too late after an accident to say you did not understand. If, unfortunately, the helper cannot read, let her learn by the smell which is the *rubbing bottle*, and keep it separate from the medicine. If any medicines be left when an illness is over, let them be destroyed. I do not mean simples such as you make yourselves, but powders, mixtures, and other things sent from the apothecary's. It is quite right to be economical, but not in these matters. I once knew a lady of a saving turn of mind who used to say, "Physic is physic, and if it does good to one, why not to another?" and when any fresh case of sickness occurred would insist upon the old stock being used up before buying any more. I need scarcely point out to you the folly of such conduct. Supposing you could ensure it being good, which you cannot do, for even exposure to light will alter some drugs; you could not tell if in any particular case it would be suitable; or if the label be rubbed off and you merely guess at the quantity to be given, you may commit a serious mistake. Let all bottles which have contained mixtures be emptied and both them and the corks washed carefully with hot water and a little soap, then dried and put away for future use.

Particularly ought you to be cautious not to leave them in the way of children; and never trust to their being safe because of having a disagreeable taste. No one would suppose there was anything tempting in the flavor of a common lucifer match, and yet we have had several cases of poisoning by children sucking the ends of them. Only a few days before this was written, a boy who had

frequently watched his mother administering physic, caused the death of his younger sister by giving her a teacupful of turpentine, and another has lost his own life by drinking sulphuric acid. When following out the directions of the doctor, be particular even in what you may consider little things—little only to you, remember, because you do not see the reason for them. For instance, he will direct you when giving some powders to mix them with sugar and not with preserve, because he knows that the acid in preserve would destroy the medicine. In another case he will direct you to keep from your patient all bread, and almost every description of vegetable —to feed him almost entirely on animal food. You will think this very unnatural—true, it is so—but so is the complaint, and requires an unnatural diet; and in this particular disease, the chance of recovery depends not upon drugs, but on the faithfulness with regard to diet in those to whom is entrusted the important question of how to help the doctor.

CAUTIONS AGAINST COMMON ERRORS.

I find a very common error amongst ignorant people is to suppose that all medicine ought to act as a purgative, that is, to open the bowels; indeed, they cannot believe that it is likely to do any good if it does not do so. I remember once seeing a patient with a severe chest complaint. The doctor, who had seen her before, remarked that she was very much better. "Indeed!" said her mother, "I don't see what could make her better, for the pills you ordered have done nothing."

I mention this for two reasons: first, that this is quite a mistake, for in many cases it would take away the patient's chance of recovery; and, secondly, to warn you against the foolish, expensive, and injurious habit many peo-

ple have of taking quantities of aperient pills and other drugs. Few of you are aware of the number of lives lost by strong, hurtful medicines. I have myself seen a man die, after being a few hours in the hospital, whose history is worth recording. He told us, that when he first felt ill, he read a description of some wonderful pills, which were to do great things for him; he took at first only two at a time, but soon found that he was obliged to continue taking them, and constantly increasing the number, till, when I saw him, his regular dose was sixteen pills every second night. By that time nature could stand against the abuse no longer, and he died.

Some years ago I met with an educated lady, who recommended some pills very highly, and as she expressed it (and thereby let out the secret), "Indeed, I could not live without them: I have used them for a long time, and now take forty-two twice a week regularly!" If you read carefully some of the advertisements of these wonderful quack medicines, you must see that they cannot possibly be true. According to them all diseases arise from one cause, and if you only take their medicine you will soon be in perfect health; in other words, you need never be ill, and never die but of old age. In some new countries where the inhabitants are very widely scattered, and no doctor can be found within a day's journey, there may be some excuse for buying what are called patent medicines, but not in any part of the country where good advice may easily be had.

In the same way, never consult a doctor who is obliged to publish his wonderful skill and cures in a newspaper. Depend upon it, if a doctor be clever and understands his profession as he ought to do, people will find it out without any newspaper advertisement.

It is astonishing how careless some people are in taking dangerous medicines. I was once called in to a gen-

tleman, forty years of age, whom I found lying on the floor in a most pitiable state, vomiting, purging blood, with fearful cramps and pains. I could obtain no information as to the cause of attack; he had been at the office as usual, and walked home a distance of three miles. After adopting suitable treatment for several hours, I left him very much relieved, and the next day he was sufficiently restored to give me the history of the affair. He said, "I was in my usual health, but a little bilious, and thought a dose of calomel would do me good. I called at a confectioner's and bought an ounce of calomel lozenges; as I came out I asked, 'what strength?' 'One grain,' answered the lady; so I kept taking them all the way. I had not taken any food since morning. After being at home about two hours, I was seized with horrible pains, and was dying when you came and saved me. That's all I can tell you about it." "Now," I said, "let me see the lozenges you have left." When I examined them I found each one stamped "calomel, one grain." By having the remainder weighed, I found that during his long walk he had eaten fourteen of them. Here is an instance of an educated man filling a high station under Government, taking this frightful quantity of a powerful drug without first ascertaining whether each lozenge was sufficient for a dose, or whether the whole ounce was to be taken, which he SUPPOSED was the case.

Have full confidence in your doctor; never attempt to deceive him, for he is almost sure to find it out, and will certainly not respect you for it. Do not be content with simply telling the truth, and nothing but the truth, but tell him the whole truth. I once asked a lady, who had then only two more days to live, what quantity of brandy she took in a day. She said, "Three wineglassfuls;" this was the truth, and nothing but the truth, but it was very far from being the whole truth, for she had thirteen!

Do not forget that you are infinitely more obliged to the doctor for spending years of toil and study, for leaving his home at all hours, and exposing himself and family to the danger of infection, than he can be to you. Even though you should not be in a position to pay him in money, yet you can cheer him on his way by showing him a thankful, grateful spirit.

We are told in the Bible that "the spirit of a man will sustain his infirmity;" be careful, then, to do all in your power to keep up that spirit: be cheerful, be hopeful, be trustful. Let your motto be, "Never despair," for in most cases while there is life there is hope. Give the patient every opportunity of recovering by following out all the directions of the doctor, not only by doing and giving, but what is far more difficult, by not doing and not giving, but each in its proper place.

HOW TO HELP WITH AN INFANT.

A babe in a house is a well-spring of pleasure, a messenger of peace and love. The young husband walks about with his head some inches higher than usual, and feeling proud and big with his newly-acquired title of *father*. The young wife is smiling through her tears with the joy of having become a mother. Baby has arrived, exactly like its mother, and the very image of its father, and the doctor says "It's a bonny little thing, sound wind and limb," and he hopes it will be a comfort to them.

Now what are we to do with it, the most helpless of all young creatures? What is done with it every day? First it is washed, then some spirits is rubbed on its head, one or two caps, and perhaps some flannel are put on, and it is dressed. Then, of course, it must begin life by taking some sort of physic, either castor oil and sugar, or butter and sugar made into a thick paste; shortly after

this it is laid on its back, and some gruel is poured down its throat, and it is put to bed: but alas! not to sleep. In a little while it begins to cry, and it is so uneasy that something has to be given to make it sleep, or there will be no rest either for itself or others. If it has been sufficiently crammed, and unfortunately has not been sick, it is very likely to have a convulsive fit, and after a hard day's work the doctor will be roused out of bed to find it suffering misery from all this interfering with nature, or to find it already gone where thousands of infants have been sent before it. Now all this is an abomination: it is ignorance and cruelty, and it does not make it one whit less so for the helper to say she did it out of kindness: it is inflicting pain upon both mother and child when there is no occasion for it.

Now let an old physician, who loves children and has watched over hundreds of them, plead for these helpless little ones. Let me tell you a few plain truths. There is no oil nor any other medicine needed for an infant that has a mother to suckle it. The first supply of milk is purgative, and quite different from what comes afterwards. No infant requires food the first twenty-four hours; no in- infant ever died for want of food the first day of its existence, but hundreds have died from over-feeding. And I need not say give no spirit or soothing mixture, for if you do not abuse its stomach, but have faith and leave it to nature, you will not require any.

As to the dressing, there is almost always sufficient notice for you to prepare the things, and with very little trouble, a few tapes and a needleful of cotton, you may do away with the dangerous practice of using pins. You will, perhaps, think this caution not required, but if you had seen as many torn limbs and deep scratches in an infant as I have, you would not think so. Only this last month there was an instance of a child who was very rest-

less and uneasy, and who would, if a little older, have been scolded and punished for being cross, and on careful examination a broken needle more than an inch long was found in its side, which would have gone through had it not been turned aside by a rib, and there it had lain for a month. No. Wash the little stranger with lukewarm water and soap, and dry the skin well, use no spirit, fasten the clothes on not too tightly with strings or a needleful of cotton. It is better not to have any cap, for the border is very apt to tickle and rub the face; but if you must have one, let it be as thin and light as possible. *Give it nothing;* or if you cannot resist the temptation, let it have occasionally a teaspoonful of milk and warm water not too sweet, till the proper supply comes; but no oil, no butter, no gruel, no spirit, no mess of any kind, but with its body clean and its tiny breath sweet and pure, lay it in its proper warm nest, the place which God has appointed for it, and child, mother, and nurse will have a calm, quiet sleep, such as all the drugs in the world cannot give, but which you may almost always enjoy, if you will exercise good plain common sense when you are trying how to *help* the doctor.

It is quite possible that as the infant grows, particularly if it be what the nurses call "a hungry child," it may require a little artificial food, for if it drains off the nourishment from its mother's breast so constantly that the milk has not time to be properly formed, it becomes thin and watery. The consequence is that it passes almost directly through the stomach, and the child is never satisfied. This comes very hard upon the mother. In this case it is better to help both mother and child. I do not know any thing so good for this purpose as biscuit powder, which you can get ready ground at the flour dealer's, or if not, all you have to do is to get a good sound common biscuit without any butter or flavor of any kind. If

you are near a seaport town, the captain's biscuit is exactly what you want. Rub a bit of this fine and simmer it in water till quite smooth, than add milk till it is the thickness of good cream, and sweeten a little. If you give two or three teaspoonfuls of this just before he takes his natural food, it will give it sufficient body to be satisfying, and do the child no harm. I prefer this to almost any artificial food, and have used it for thirty years; but for a change, bread, sago, arrowroot, and other things may be substituted. It is not of so much consequence *which* you use as *how* you use them, only be guided by this fact—that a child's natural food is milk, and if you give anything much thicker than this, you will do harm.

It is a mistake to suppose that every time a child cries it is hungry. The only way an infant can ask for anything is by crying. It may have pain in its limbs from being cramped up too long in one position, or from a hard crumb, or a pin, or from illness; but as yet it has no power to use words; it can only, by crying, say it wants something, and it is the duty of those about it to find out *what.*

Now allow me to say a few words about *habits.* No one who has actually proved it has any idea how very early in life an infant can be taught a habit, particularly cleanliness, by a slight amount of trouble and regular attendance every day. If any young wife should read this, let me assure her that this is "not one of those impossible things that are all very well in books, but no one ever thinks of doing." Let her only try it, and she will soon be convinced. I have seen infants only a few months old, who gave no more trouble than a child three years old, except, of course, requiring assistance.

About *rocking the cradle.* It is foolish to teach a child to expect you to work at the cradle when it goes to sleep; it occupies time, and does the child no good. The

next habit is even worse, that is, teaching the child to compel you to walk about with it till it chooses to fall asleep, and then to put it to bed without awakening it, which you may try to do five or six times without succeeding, and each time have to begin your walk again. Begin as you intend to go on. Lay it down awake, and if nature requires it, sleep will come, and if not, no rocking will force it; but this must be taught from the very beginning. A healthy infant ought to sleep twenty hours out of the twenty-four, during its first month, which it will do without any rocking, and it is a great pity for you to teach it anything different.

Never give an infant *cold* castor oil, it is too thick and sticky; put it with an equal quantity of milk into a teacup, add a little sugar, and warm it; it will then be quite fluid; stir it well, and the child will take it without difficulty. When a child is cutting teeth, there is always some feverishness and irritation. If the bowels be a little relaxed, do not be in any hurry to interfere; but if this requires to be checked, do not fly to soothing syrup, infants' preservatives, paregoric, or laudanum; they are nearly all dangerous—one drop of laudanum has killed an infant. Try the following simple remedy first, and if it does not answer, consult a doctor: Take a large teacupful of fine flour, tie it up as tightly as you can in a cloth, and boil it for four hours; then hang it up in a warm room till it is dry. You will find now that the outside is quite hard, like the shell of a cocoanut; break some of this off, and scrape out from the inside as much as you require; boil this in milk till it is the thickness of cream, sweeten a little, and feed the child with it for a day or two.

When the teeth are coming through the gums, do not give the child any hard substance to chew, such as coral or ivory, which breaks the enamel off the points and makes them decay; the best thing is india-rubber, which

you can get at the druggists' or rubber shops; before using it the first time wash it with warm water, and rub it over with a little molasses or sugar; you will find this a great comfort to the child, and it is perfectly safe. A child may not need animal food till it has teeth to chew it with, but during the second summer meat is essential to its welfare, and should be given in preference to the starchy things so much in vogue.

A very frequent complaint of infants is the THRUSH or "frog." The mouth is lined with white spots, exactly like fine curds of milk; and though in this stage it may not do the child much harm, it must not be allowed to run on. The usual remedy is borax and honey. A much better one is equal parts of borax, saltpetre, and loaf sugar, rubbed well together; a small pinch put into the child's mouth three times a day. Keep it in a dry place. Or you may dissolve a quarter of an ounce of chlorate of potash in two thirds of a tumbler of warm water and use it as a mouth wash.

A child is during teething subject also to an eruption of small red spots, which the nurses call TOOTH RASH. A few doses of calcined magnesia will generally set this right. When the gums are swollen, very red, and painful, you should let your doctor see them; they may require to be lanced. There is not the slightest doubt that when this is done in proper cases and at the proper time, it will save a child from days and nights of suffering, and from convulsions; but great comfort can be given by simply rubbing the gums gently with a finger and the least morsel of butter, and giving a dose of cooling medicine. If convulsions should occur, put the little one's feet into hot mustard and water till the skin is quite red; give a dose of purgative medicine; apply cold water to the head; and send for your doctor.

Never frighten a child by mentioning the doctor in

any way as a punishment; one would think that a moment's reflection would convince any person of the extreme folly of doing this. How can a physician find out the true state of a child's pulse, or breathing, or the countenance when the poor little thing is trembling with fear? I was once attending a little girl about four years of age, and as usual we got on very well together; but after some days the child would not come to me, but was so nervous and agitated that I could do no good. On making inquiry, I found that her mother had told her that if she did not do as she bid her, the doctor would come and "cut her head off." Of course the child believed her own mother, and therefore no wonder she looked upon me with horror. After a while I succeeded in restoring confidence. I told her I would come to see her when she was ill, nay, even if she had some dreadful fever, when others could not come to her, I would never forsake her, and so on. Young as she was, she very soon discovered that her mother had told her an untruth. Now, instead of holding up the doctor as a bugbear to terrify a child, try to impress upon it that he comes on a visit of mercy, then it will be calm and trustful, and the doctor will have a better chance of restoring his patient to health.

It is dreadful to hear of the abominable cruelty practiced on poor helpless children by the stupid ignorance of some parents. How often do they get a blow or get punished when they ought to have medicine and careful nursing! I say nothing here of the numbers of innocents overlain and otherwise killed by drunken mothers—their name is legion—but from stupidity and want of common thought. Look at this case, which has just been published in the newspapers. A boy is taken into a yard naked, and buckets of cold water poured over him; is beaten every day, kept without food, not allowed a bed to lie

on, chained to a post, and other cruelties, till he is nearly dead. And why? Because he was not clean in his habits. When he was taken to the hospital, it was found that the poor little thing had been suffering for months from a very painful disease, which made it impossible for him to act as a child in health would do, and which without the brutality of his father would have destroyed him in a few days had he not been rescued.

When taking an infant out, and you require to shade its face from the sun or wind, be careful that the handkerchief, or whatever you use, does not touch the face. Few people are aware what a slight thing will suffocate a child if its hands be fastened so that it cannot use them. A very fine child lost its life in this way not very long since. A silk handkerchief was thrown over its face, and the wind blew it against the mouth and nose; so that every time the infant gasped for air, it sucked in the handkerchief still closer, and as it could not cry, there was nothing to arouse its mother, till on her arrival at home she found it dead.

One of the common ailments of children is WORMS. If you notice a child grinding its teeth, rubbing its nose, and otherwise complaining of itching, and the appetite uncertain, your suspicions may fairly be aroused, but the only positive evidence of worms is in finding them in the child's evacuations. They sometimes cause serious illness, which is known as "worm fever." You may prevent this by a little timely attention, without giving them the common worm cakes, and such like remedies, which nearly all contain calomel. For a child about four years old, make a tea as follows:—Get half an ounce of *pink-root* and a quarter of an ounce of senna and of fennel. Put a pint of boiling water on them and give a tablespoonful three times a day.

Do not be anxious to make an infant *stand or walk* too

early. Because one child walks at a certain age, it is no reason why another should; it must depend upon the strength and fitness of the child to do it. When the bones and muscles are sufficiently strong, the child will start of its own accord; and if you force it before this time, you run great risk of having the limbs bent. It is perhaps as well for you to know that there is a disease in which the bones remain soft, and bend under the weight of a child, for years.

Mothers frequently suffer a good deal of anxiety from a child having *swallowed a marble or coin;* but it is very seldom there are any bad effects. The best plan is to give the food a little more solid than usual, and no purgative medicine. It is very surprising how sharp-pointed articles are swallowed and find their way not only through the stomach, but through the substance of the body till they reach the surface. I have removed a needle from the arm of a young woman, who swallowed it seven years before.

Do not apply a *blister* to a child without advice, and if ordered by a doctor, be particular to remove it at the proper time; if left too long, it may cause serious trouble. Bear in mind that the effect of a fly blister goes on long after it is taken off. If you are obliged to use anything of the sort, mustard is safer and quicker.

It sometimes happens when people, but particularly children, are ill of some serious disease, when it is at the crisis, or what is called "at the turn," they take some odd fancy in the way of food; they will ask for some articles quite out of the common way, perhaps something which you are not aware they have ever tasted. In these cases I have always found it better to let a child have it, even at some trouble and expense. I look upon it as a craving of nature, for they not only enjoy it, but live upon it for days; then when it has done the particular work for

which it was intended, the child takes a dislike to it, and will not touch it again. There are two cautions to be observed here—first, this must not be confounded with the fanciful appetite of a disordered stomach, where a dozen different things are asked for in the day, and not one of them eaten; and second, it is well to mention it to the doctor who is watching over the child, so that he may suit his treatment to the particular article taken, if he approves of it. One of the cravings of an invalid is for water. I have great faith in water. There is nothing which the most skilful nurse can make which is relished so much as pure, cold, fresh water; and unless there be some especial reason against it, there should be no limit. It should not be brought into the sick room in a large quantity and left there till it becomes warm and flat, but renewed constantly.

Remember that one great difference between a grown-up person and a child is this—an adult has a natural dread of death, and in many cases a far greater dread of the after "death," and will therefore submit to any treatment, however painful, if likely to preserve life; whereas a child has no fear of death, but has a dread of present pain. When children are not too weak to bear it, we should do all we can to amuse them—a few toys, pictures, a pair of scissors and some paper to cut up, a doll, a slate and pencil, or if there be a pet bird or any small animal, let it come in the room occasionally—anything which will occupy the mind, cheer the spirits, and give the little one the best possible chance of recovery.

A

MANUAL OF NURSING

PREPARED

FOR THE TRAINING SCHOOL FOR NURSES ATTACHED
TO BELLEVUE HOSPITAL

NEW YORK
G. P. PUTNAM'S SONS
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PREFACE.

NO one in writing a book on nursing could fail to use some of the ideas of Florence Nightingale in her "Notes on Nursing," and as Miss Lee's delightful book on "Hospital Sisters" has been read and re-read by us, we naturally have borrowed some of her good directions.

We received most cordial permission from Zepherina Veitch (Mrs. Henry Smith), the author of "A Handbook for Nurses," and from Dr. Edward J. Domville, who wrote a "Manual for Hospital Nurses," to use these admirable books in the compilation of our manual. Use has also been made of Moffat's "Manual of Instruction for Nurses."

We feel indebted to Dr. Mary Putnam Jacobi

for her kindly interest, and also to Dr. Victoria White, to whom really belongs the credit of editing and compiling this manual. Our one wish is that it may prove useful to those who are earnestly studying to become good and efficient nurses.

For the Committee of the Training School for Nurses attached to Bellevue Hospital, New York.

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A

MANUAL OF NURSING.

CHAPTER I.

QUALIFICATIONS OF A NURSE.

IT was not very long ago that the work of nursing the sick was considered to belong to those who were incapacitated by age, feebleness, or blighted hopes, for the more active duties of life. But in these latter days let the sick take courage. This forlorn train of sick-room spectres is disappearing before the bands of the young and hopeful, to whom life has not lost its charm, who are ready to devote themselves in their youth and strength to this work of humanity. It is no light task that they are willing to perform. There is, perhaps, no calling in life which demands a more constant exercise of all the Christian virtues than that of nursing the sick.

Those who contemplate devoting themselves to this work should consider well that fatigue and discomfort are inseparable from the lot of the nurse. They should also bear in mind the many calls that will be made upon their patience, forbearance and kindness. Those who

would have the control of others must ever preserve the most perfect self-control, and behind this self-control, there must be firm principle. Any manifestation of temper on the part of the nurse is inexcusable, no matter how trying the circumstance which occasioned it. No real service which the nurse can render should be thought menial or disagreeable; for the comfort and well-being of those in her charge constitute the one object for which she labors.

In many cases a favorable result depends as much upon the faithfulness of the nurse as the skill of the physician, and equally certain is it that an inefficient and careless nurse will thwart the efforts of the best physician.

Truthfulness and honesty are necessary in one who is entrusted with the responsibilities which devolve upon the attendant of the sick. Habits of punctuality and order are all-important; if these are wanting there will be haste, distraction and much vexation of spirit which will re-act unfavorably upon all, and be fatal to the regular and systematic succession of duties, upon which the comfort of the sick so much depends.

A nurse should observe most conscientious reticence with regard to anything of a personal or domestic character, in the affairs of her patients, with which she may become acquainted. Nothing that can really affect the patient's interest must be withheld from the physician; but beyond this, let the nurse refrain from speaking of her patient except in that general way which is remote from even the suspicion of gossip.

The better the general education, the better the foundation for the professional training necessary to make a

skilled nurse, and ample opportunity may be found for the use of even high intellectual attainments. A more intelligent interest in the work is thus insured which will conduce to the content and cheerfulness of the nurse, and so to the comfort and well-being of those under her care. Let it be remembered that the care which the nurse gives her patient will often decide the question of life or death, and her calling will then assume the dignity which really belongs to it. But, setting aside this question, is it a slight thing to be able to lessen the amount of human suffering? The assurance that she can do this, the desire to do it most wisely and well, will lead the true nurse to qualify herself by careful study and practice for the best performance of her work.

Good health is indispensable for the proper discharge of the duties of a nurse, which are always more or less arduous. Skillful fingers are very desirable, and activity without noise.

The best age to begin the study of nursing is from twenty-five to thirty-five years; it would be a very exceptional case in which it could be successfully commenced after the age of thirty-five.

DUTIES OF A NURSE TO HERSELF.

Personal cleanliness.—To insure personal cleanliness a bath once a day is essential. It is a good plan for a nurse to take a cold sponge-bath in the morning, and to wash thoroughly with warm water at night. A nurse should always have clean hands, especial care being taken

to cleanse them thoroughly with a disinfectant solution after dressing any wound.

Dress.—The under linen should be changed entirely twice a week. The outer dress should be clean and neat, simply made of calico or some washable material. The dress should never be long enough to touch the floor, or be extended by crinoline. Aprons, cuffs, collars and caps, should be frequently changed. A nurse should not serve the meals of patients wearing the same apron as when she dressed wounds, &c. High-heeled boots are out of place in the sick-room. The hair should be plainly dressed, well combed up from the neck behind, with an absence of artificial pads or ornaments.

Care of her own health.—While the nurse should be faithful and conscientious in the discharge of her duty to her patients, she should not forget that her own health demands that she should observe all possible hygienic regulations.

It is important that the nurse have regular meals and regular sleep. As a rule, she should sleep seven or eight hours out of twenty-four. We have already spoken of the cold sponge-bath in the morning; this is chiefly desirable for its tonic effect, the warm bath in the evening being recommended for cleansing purposes. With few exceptions, some portion of every day should be spent in the open air. Nurses are apt to get careless about these matters, partly because they do not realize their importance, and partly because of the frequent difficulty attending their observation; and when the health begins to suffer, they resort to the use of stimulants, hoping to keep up the strength by the use of strong tea and coffee,

or alcoholic stimulants. This course is one which is most injurious to the health. Let the nurse but realize this, and she will find that with a little management she will usually be able to follow the above simple rules of hygiene.

INSTRUCTION FOR NURSES.

Until within a few years it has not been considered at all necessary that nurses should receive any training for their work, but now the attention which the subject demands is being given to it, and nursing is becoming the subject of special education.

Duration of training.—Fully two years' time is necessary to enable one to become thoroughly skilled in the art of nursing. The usual course of instruction in the training school requires attention in three different directions: First, to the proper condition of the room, as to light, warmth, air, cleanliness of bed, furniture, and all utensils; Second, to the care of the sick themselves; Third, to superintendence and household management.

Candidates for admission should be taken on probation for a month. During this time they will be appointed to the commonest ward duties—making beds, dusting, attending to personal cleanliness of patients, preparing bandages, assisting the nurse in dressings and other necessary duties.

If the month has been passed satisfactorily, the probationer will then enter upon the regular course of training of the school, comprising instruction on various subjects connected with the special duties, elementary instruction

in the anatomy of the human body, in physiology, with reference to a knowledge of the leading functions of the body, general instruction on medical and surgical topics, chemistry of common life, particularly of air, water and food, on diet, and cookery for the sick.

CHAPTER II.

CONCERNING HOSPITAL MANAGEMENT.

SUPERINTENDENT.—For the proper management of all that pertains to the care of the sick in a hospital, there must be one capable and responsible woman as Superintendent over the whole establishment, and all the nurses should be under her supervision in grades, according to their several abilities. The duties of the Superintendent will vary in different institutions, according to the size of the hospital and other arrangements. She will direct the instruction of the nurses, or have an assistant appointed for that purpose.

Each ward should have a head nurse, and assistant nurses according to the number of the patients.

Duties of head nurses.—The head nurse should always accompany the attending physician in his visits, and should know the condition of every patient under her care. She should know what patients are in need of special care and attention, and be sure that they want nothing. She should also know what patients are convalescent, and able to assist in any light work of the ward, which knowledge she can only obtain from the physician.

The diet of the patients will be prescribed by the

physician at the regular rounds, but the head nurse will see that these orders reach the proper authorities, and that any special diet is served to the patient at the ap pointed hours.

She will see that the medicines are administered as prescribed.

She will daily inspect the ward closets, making sure that all utensils are faultlessly clean, and that there are no hiding-places for soiled linen or old bandages.

She will see that the ward supplies of basins, towels, urinals, soft rags, lint, soap, bandages and disinfectants are not wanting, reporting any deficiency to the appropriate person.

She will instruct her assistants in making beds, airing beds and bedding, and in removing at once all soiled linen from the ward, consigning it to the appointed place.

She will arrange the order and method of the ward work.

The temperature and ventilation of the ward will receive her special attention.

The night nurses will be appointed by the Superintendent.

Requirements of nurses.—The nurses will be required from time to time to make a written report of certain cases in which are noted the pulse, temperature, respiration, kind and amount of nutriment taken, and hours of the same, hours at which medicines have been administered, character of evacuations, with observation of any changes which have been noticed in the condition of the patient.

They will be examined as occasion requires, that their theoretical knowledge of the branches which they are studying may be tested, as well as their skill in bandaging, and in the use of the various appliances of the sick room.

CARE OF WARDS.

Cleanliness.—The wards of a hospital must be kept absolutely free from dust. The dust of a ward is made up of organic impurities and the germs of disease, hence the importance of its careful and thorough removal. To accomplish this object it is not necessary to do much sweeping. Soft hair brooms may be sometimes used, taking care not to raise the dust, but to move it gently before the broom. To effectually remove the dust damp cloths or sponges are necessary. The floors should be washed at least twice a week, the other wood-work and the windows once a week. Carbolized water should always be used in cleaning the wards.

"Eternal vigilance" is necessary to keep the beds in a proper condition, and free from dust, vermin and filth. It is the duty of the head nurse to make sure that infected beds are taken out of the ward as soon as the patient leaves. The blankets and all the bedding from these beds should be washed and disinfected.

All beds, bedding, blankets and pillows should be frequently exposed to the open air and sunshine.

Before putting away the clothing of patients it is necessary that it be thoroughly cleansed, or it becomes a fruitful source of contamination. The duty of the nurse

should be to put the clothes in packages, labeled with the patient's name and number, and send them to the steaming room.*

Ward bedside tables, if made of wood and painted, will admit of frequent washing, or they may be covered with muslin. In any case they must be kept clean.

Bed pans and chamber utensils should have special shelves, and only be taken into the ward when required. Whatever passes from a patient should be at once removed, and the vessel itself rinsed, first with cold, then with carbolized water, before being returned to its place.

The water-closets must be carefully looked after, and kept perfectly clean and free from smell. The stationary basins and sinks also need attention to keep them clean. Papier maché basins and pails are light and convenient, but are objectionable from the fact that they soon absorb impurities and become unfit for use. Glass should be used for all possible purposes.

The soiled linen should be taken at once from the ward to the laundry. Covered zinc-lined baskets are useful

*Though the patient may not be suffering from any infectious disease himself, it is impossible to say what may have been the state of the people about him before he was brought to the hospital. If the nurse has any reason to think he has any infectious complaint, such as erysipelas, or any of the infectious fevers, her duty becomes more urgent to have the clothes instantly removed. In such a case she will probably receive from the doctor directions for isolating the patient. She must take care to wash her hands well with soap and water and some disinfectant solution before touching any other patient,—a precaution which may be well taken in every case, even though there is no reason to suspect infection.

for this purpose. Articles requiring disinfection should be put in separate baskets and so labeled. Each quantity of soiled linen should be accompanied by a check or list, showing the number of articles, and the ward to which they belong. Soiled dressings may be put temporarily in a glazed earthen-ware bucket with lid, in the bath-room, but even here they must not be allowed to remain long. They must be soon burned, and the jars in which they are kept should be thoroughly carbolized each time they are emptied. Some disinfectant, as chloride of lime, should be constantly kept in these vessels.

BEDS AND BEDDING.

Kind of bed.—Light iron bedsteads are the best, such as are in common use at the present day. If practicable, it is a good plan to have two beds near one another, that the patient may have one for the night and one for the day. Where this is done the nurse must remember that the second bed will need to be warmed in many cases before the patient gets into it.

Mattress.—The woven wire bed is superior to all others for hospital use. Over this a pair of blankets may be spread, which can be frequently washed, or a light straw mattress which can be emptied, washed, and freshly filled for every new patient.

Pillows.—The pillows may be made of hair, feathers or straw.

Chaff pillows are very useful in surgical wards. It is a soft pillow, susceptible of being moulded to any re-

quired shape, is always ready, and has this advantage that it can be easily renewed.

Sand bags.—Sand bags should likewise be kept on hand. It is advisable to have them of different sizes, varying from one to four feet in length, and of proportionate thickness.

Preparation of bed for patient.—In preparing the bed for a patient, after the under sheet has been adjusted it is necessary in many cases to arrange a rubber sheet or draw sheet in such a way that no blood or other discharge could possibly reach the under sheet, as it is often important that that should not be frequently changed, while it is absolutely necessary to remove any soiled clothing from a bed as quickly as possible.

The draw sheet should be the same width as the sheet, to give room for its being tucked under the mattress on each side, and about a yard long. It can readily be withdrawn from under the patient when soiled without changing the under sheet.

Care must always be taken to keep the sheet on which the patient lies smooth and free from crumbs. Neglect to do this is a frequent cause of bed-sores.

To change the under sheet.—To change the under sheet without removing the patient from the bed is in many cases a difficult operation, and one which will require the help of one or two assistants. The nurse should first loosely roll the clean sheet, leaving enough unrolled to cover the bolster ; she should then free the soiled sheet carefully at the head, rolling it in under the patient, until the bolster is clear. Then cover the bolster with the clean sheet, and roll it under the patient until the clean

and soiled sheets are close beside one another, just under the shoulders. She should then work both down togeth er, unrolling the clean sheet as she rolls up the soiled one. In many cases the patient will be able to raise himself sufficiently to let both sheets pass. Where this cannot be done, those helping will pass their hands under him, giving as much aid as necessary.

In many cases where the patient can be turned from side to side the under sheet may be changed by rolling half of the clean sheet lengthwise, instead of as before; then roll or lift the patient to one side of the bed, loosen the soiled sheet, pressing it close to the back of the patient; cover this side of the bed with the clean sheet, over this the rubber sheet and draw sheet may be laid, having previously rolled them in the same manner as the under sheet. Then the patient can be rolled back to this side of the bed, the soiled sheet removed from the other side, and the under sheet, rubber sheet and draw sheet adjusted.

To change the upper sheet.—To remove the upper sheet it is only necessary to take care not to chill the patient. Remove all covering from the patient but the sheet and one blanket, then lay the clean sheet over these and a blanket, after which let the soiled sheet and blanket be removed from underneath.

VENTILATION AND TEMPERATURE.

Importance of ventilation.—Air which has been contaminated by the breath and other exhalations is no longer fit to meet the wants of the body. Every one will be

ready to acknowledge that to live we must breathe; few seem to realize that it makes any difference whether the air we breathe be pure or foul. Death would result from no air at all, but foul air can support life for some time, though it be at a "poor, dying rate", and at this rate many are content to exist. They make no effort to get rid of the foul and poisoned air of their dwellings, seeming rather to try to prevent its escape, while they fear instead the effects of pure air, regarding it as an enemy to be shunned.

Sources of bad air in the sick room.—Foul air is really more injurious to the sick than to the well, for with the latter its effects are somewhat counteracted by the pure air which they will usually get out of doors some time during the twenty-four hours; but the sick often remain for weeks in the same room, where they drag on a miserable existence, breathing over and over again the air which has been made foul by the breath, exhalations from the skin, from the evacuations of the bladder and bowels, from discharging wounds, and various other sources, until they themselves, as well as the clothing, furniture and walls become thoroughly saturated with noxious gases. The attempt is never made to thoroughly drive out this vile air, and to furnish in its place an atmosphere which is not lacking in the life-giving element, oxygen. Popular ignorance and indifference in regard to ventilation, a subject at once so vital and so simple, is as astonishing as it is profound.

Cold air not always pure.—Some confound the subject of ventilation with that of temperature, thinking that if a door be opened into a hall where the air is cold, that

that is all that is necessary, forgetting that cold air is not always pure, nor pure air necessarily cold. To harmonize these two essentials of pure air and a comfortable temperature, is the object at which we should aim.

Cold air not dangerous.—The fresh supply of air may be previously warmed before it is admitted to the room, but while this is sometimes done, and is in a very few cases desirable, it is seldom that the admission of cold air is a disadvantage, and its invigorating effects are often beneficial. The patient should not be in a draft, and sufficient clothing may be put on the bed, that there will be no danger of taking cold, even in the coldest weather.

Night air.—A foolish prejudice also exists, in many minds, against night air.* The difference between day and night air lies in the fact that the former is modified by the sun. Too much cannot be said of the value of sunlight in purifying the atmosphere, acting as a direct remedial agency in disease, also in promoting cheerfulness, contributing indirectly to the physical welfare ; but as we cannot travel with the sun, and make a journey to China and back, every twenty-four hours, we are forced to breathe night air, and we are left to decide whether we will have pure or foul night air.

Oxygen necessary to combustion, also to life and health.—Oxygen constitutes about one-fifth of the atmospheric air, and is the element so necessary to life and health. The blood comes to the lungs for oxygen, which it takes

* It is true, that in malarial districts certain precautions need to be taken in regard to night air, but such precautions are, under other circumstances, quite unnecessary.

to different parts of the body. A process of combustion is constantly going on in the body, by which we mean the chemical union of carbon and oxygen, forming carbonic acid gas, which is thrown off in the breath. Whenever carbon unites with oxygen, as in burning wood or coal, in the lighted gas jet, the burning lamp or candle, the same process of combustion is going on, and the same product, carbonic acid gas, is being formed. If, however, the supply of oxygen fails, the process ceases. This can be seen by putting a lighted candle under a glass jar. For a short time it burns brightly, then more and more dimly, and finally it goes out. This is because the oxygen has been all used up. So, if we shut ourselves up in a room to which no fresh air is admitted, a similar change takes place. Life is not, usually, entirely extinguished, because a little air gets in through cracks, crevices, and an occasional open door; but all the faculties of the body, physical, mental and moral, become impaired. We become like the dimly-burning candle, which, for most useful purposes, might as well not burn at all.

Object of ventilation.—The object of ventilation is to remove the impure air, and to supply fresh air. The means of accomplishing this object are various, consisting of doors, chimneys, windows, and other special apparatus provided for the purpose. There is no better ventilator than an open fire. Warm air is lighter than cold air. As the air of the room becomes heated, it rises up the chimney, then if fresh air is constantly coming in at a window, we have the most perfect ventilation. Ventilating flues are constructed on this principle. They are heated by a fire or gas jet ; the heated air rises, the air

of the room rushes in to supply its place. As the air from the room is removed, air from some other source is drawn in to take its place. It is important to be sure that this air supply be pure. If it is simply cooler air from an unventilated hall or corridor, we fail in securing good ventilation. It must not be forgotten, that for thorough ventilation, opportunity must be offered for foul air to go out and for fresh air to come in.

Ventilation of hospitals especially important.—The ventilation of hospitals is especially important, as the sources of contamination of the air are so numerous. In all well-regulated institutions, there are abundant means of ventilation provided, and it becomes the business of the nurse to see that these are made use of. At the same time care must be taken to see that the patients are not exposed to drafts. Screens can be used, as necessary, for protection.

Temperature of wards.—Patients who are in bed, are comfortable at a temperature lower than would be desirable in an ordinary sitting-room; it may be allowed to range from 65° to 68° F. It should, however, be warmer than this when the patients are being bathed.

It should be remembered that the temperature of the body is lower at about three or four o'clock in the morning, than at any other time during the twenty-four hours. The night nurse should be instructed to see that patients have more clothing at this time, if desired, and hot bottles should be supplied for the feet, as necessary.

DISINFECTANTS AND DEODORIZERS.

Two classes.—There are two principal classes of disin-

fectants: first, absorbents; second, antiseptics, or those which destroy organic matter.

Absorbents.—In the first class are charcoal and porous clay. These absorb deleterious substances in the surrounding atmosphere. The vessels which contain these substances should be frequently emptied and renewed.

Deodorizers.—The absorbents act also as deodorizers. There may be circumstances in which it is useful to deodorize, by substituting a harmless odor for a disagreeable one. A good way to do this is to bring into a room a shovel full of hot coals, and to pour on them about two tablespoonfuls of toilet vinegar, taking care, at the same time, to hold the shovel at arm's length. But this in no way takes the place of a disinfectant. The real need is pure air, to take the place of the contaminated air, and as soon as this can be obtained there will be no use for deodorizers. Some people have the idea that a disinfectant, to be really efficacious, must have a strong odor, but in reality some of the best disinfectants are quite odorless, as sulphate of iron.

Quick lime acts by absorbing moisture, and is, therefore, useful to put in damp places.

Slacked lime readily absorbs carbonic acid, as may be shown by putting a saucer of lime-water into a room where this gas is present, or by blowing into lime-water; the clear water becomes milky in appearance, the insoluble carbonate of lime having been formed.

Substances both absorbent and antiseptic.—Chloride of lime also readily absorbs moisture, but has a further action as an antiseptic.*

* Sulphate of iron is also an absorbent and an antiseptic.

Antiseptics.—Of the second class of disinfectants, or antiseptics, there are certain ones which may be constantly used in occupied wards. Under this head are :

Those used in occupied wards.—1. Condy's fluid, a strong solution of permanganate of potassa, which, more or less diluted, may be exposed in vessels through a ward.

2. Solution of carbolic acid, which may be used as above, or sheets wrung out of it may be hung over frames, and these may be placed around the bed of a patient where more complete isolation is impracticable.

3. Chloralum may be similarly used.

Those used in empty wards.—The following disinfectants can be used only in empty wards :

1. Chlorine gas.

2. Sulphurous acid gas.

For thorough and complete disinfection nothing is superior to chlorine gas. It is produced thus :

One part of common salt is mixed with one part of black oxide of manganese in a shallow earthen pan. Two parts of oil of vitriol, previously diluted with one part, by measure, of water, should then be poured over it, and the whole stirred with a stick. Chlorine will continue to be liberated for four days. It is necessary while employing it, that the doors, windows, and chimneys of the room, be kept carefully closed for some hours.

A good, and at the same time a cheap way of disinfecting a ward and its furniture, is by exposing it to the action of sulphurous acid gas. All windows and doors of the room should be closed while a stick of brimstone

is burnt within, so as to fill the room with the fumes. Afterwards, the doors and windows may be opened, and the furniture and floor washed with a solution of carbolic acid, one part of carbolic acid to twenty parts of water.

PREVENTION OF THE SPREAD OF CONTAGIOUS DISEASES.

In a case of measles, scarlet fever, diphtheria or smallpox, one of the first things to be considered is how to prevent the spread of the disease.

It would be a good rule to follow when a child is taken sick, especially if it have fever or sore throat, to keep it away from other children until after it has been seen by the physician, and such communication has been pronounced safe.

A patient with any of these diseases should be at once isolated. Any children in the house should be sent away, as they are more susceptible than adults to external influences. A room at the top of the house should be chosen for the patient. This room should be dismantled of all unnecessary furniture. Carpets and upholstered furniture should be removed. The germs of the disease float in the air and settle on all the articles in the room, especially becoming entangled in the meshes of woolen materials, where they have been known to live for years. The most thorough ventilation of the room should be secured to dilute the poisoned air which the patient has to breathe. This dilution of the poison will also tend to limit the spread of the contagion.

Disinfectants should be used freely. Some disinfec-

tant should be constantly kept in the vessel which receives the discharges from the bowels, or from the nose or throat. Girondin's disinfectant is very good. Sulphate of iron, or some other disinfectant, should be used plentifully in the water-closet. Cloths wet in a solution of chloride of lime, should be hung in the room. The clothing from the bed, or patient, should be removed from the room in a covered jar which contains a disinfectant solution.

The patient should be cared for by a nurse who has no communication with other persons. It would be better that she should wear clothing which can afterwards be destroyed. Diseases are often carried in the dresses of attendants. The hair will require the most thorough washing with a strong disinfectant solution.

After recovery the room, and all articles of furniture, or clothing, must undergo the most thorough fumigation. It is always well to use things that can afterwards be burned without much loss, and in a very malignant case, such destruction becomes imperative.

PUERPERAL FEVER.

Puerperal fever is one of the most malignant of contagious diseases, and one which, breaking out in a maternity ward, demands the most decided and prompt action to prevent its ravages among the patients. The most complete isolation is necessary. Disinfectants should be freely used. The nurse who has charge of such a patient should have nothing at all to do with the other lying-in women. All articles of clothing, and all utensils, should

not be allowed to come in contact with other patients. The catheter, syringe, and other instruments, should never again be used for other patients. It is impossible to disinfect them so thoroughly that such use would be safe. Carelessness in this direction is one of the most frequent causes of the spread of this dreadful disease.

CHAPTER III.

OBSERVATION OF THE SICK.

IMPORTANCE of habits of observation.—It is impossible to enumerate all the points which the nurse is called upon to observe in the sick under her charge; but nothing is more important than that she cultivate habits of correct observation. The Superintendent, or her assistant, should frequently require the nurses to report what they have observed in the cases under their care. She should point out to them what they have failed to notice, and by frequent exercise in this way their powers of observation will become greatly improved. There are many things important for the physician to know, which only the observant nurse can tell him, and there are others about which she can obtain information, and thus be able to give him valuable assistance. Patients are generally ready to converse more freely with the nurse than with the physician, and the opportunities she has of learning about her patient are much better than his. In seeking information from her patient, the nurse must be conscientious and discreet. Let no questions be asked to gratify an idle curiosity. Do not weary the patient with questions when he ought not to talk, unless the case is urgent, or you are requested so to do by the physician.

Points for observation.—The following are points for observation, or inquiry :

Date ; name of patient ; age ; sex ; married or single ; residence ; employment ; habits, sober or otherwise ; previous ill-health ; health of other members of family, and, if any be dead, supposed cause of death.

General description.—Appearance ; condition ; posture ; weight (alteration in) ; temperature ; notice whether legs, feet, or bowels be swollen.

Skin.—Color ; perspiration, general or local ; eruption, situation and duration ; existence of redness ; swellings.

Alimentary canal.—Hunger ; thirst ; taste. Lips ; color, moist or dry. Tongue; form, color, dryness, surface, coating. Stomach ; nausea ; vomiting ; eructations ; pain, during, before, or after eating (how soon after), character of pain, sharp, heavy or cramp-like. Bowels ; habitually and at present, as regards frequency of action and character of evacuations ; whether any gall-stones, or worms (thread, round, or segments of tape-worm), be passed.

Urine.—Quantity; frequency (night and day) ; color, light or dark ; clear, or opaque ; specific gravity ; sediment, gravel, or resembling mucus, or pus ; smell, normal, or offensive ; pain in micturition, its seat and direction ; pain in the loins.

Circulating system.—Pulse, rate, volume ; palpitation ; sensation of pain or discomfort at heart.

Respiratory system.—Frequency of respiration ; regularity ; difficulty of breathing ; how affected by position. Cough ; character, hard, dry, incessant, spasmodic, when

worse, on first waking, or on movement. Expectoration; quantity, character, color, odor, tenacity.

Nervous system.—General intelligence; memory; speech; slowness of manner; headache (where); giddiness; sleep; dreams; fits; alteration in kind or degree of sensibility in sight, hearing, smell, taste, touch; pupils, large or small, any difference between the two; pain; numbness; tremors; rigors; rigidity; paralysis.

In the case of female patients: menstruation, frequency, duration; pain, before, during, or at the time of flow; character of discharge; profuse or scanty. Any other discharge,—character; amount. If married, number of children born at full term; ages of eldest and youngest; miscarriages, or still-births; possibility of pregnancy.

Anything unusual which may come from the patient at any time, should be preserved for the doctor's inspection, and any event in connection with the same should be reported, and the time of its occurrence.

UNDRESSING PATIENTS.

To accomplish this object with the least possible pain and annoyance to the patient, requires much care on the part of the nurse.

Case of broken thigh.—A case of broken thigh is the most difficult to undress. The injury is in itself a serious one, and is liable to become much more so by rough or clumsy handling. In a case of this kind, the bed clothes should all be turned back to the foot of the bed, and the patient laid in the middle,—having previously taken care to protect the under sheet with a rubber cloth, if the

clothes are dirty. If the patient be a male, remove the coat, waistcoat and collar, as gently as possible. The outer seam of the trouser-leg containing the injured limb should then be ripped up until the trousers are completely open, waistband included. The buttons should then be unfastened (the sheet being first thrown over the patient to prevent unnecessary exposure), and the cut trouser-leg drawn with the utmost care and gentleness from under the whole length of the leg, to the inside, the hand being slipped under the thigh, if necessary, to avoid all dragging. The body of the patient must then be gently raised, sufficient to draw the body of the trousers from under him; the other trouser-leg can easily be drawn off while the sheet is kept over the patient.

The sock or stocking should be cut open down the seam, and the foot drawn off, while the ankle is firmly but gently held without raising the leg, in order to avoid any jarring of the broken thigh.

Broken arm.—If the case is one of broken arm, all the sleeves should first be removed from the uninjured limb; then those containing the broken limb gently drawn down, unless it is found the attempt causes the patient great pain; in this case, they should be at once opened up the seam. The shirt-sleeve should always be opened, and in some cases it is desirable to open the side-seam of the shirt as well, both for the convenience of the surgeon, and in order to facilitate the changing of the shirt, when necessary.

Female patients.—Any directions that could be given in the case of female patients would have to be modified to suit the greater or less degree of complexity in the

arrangements in individual cases, and here the nurse will often find ample opportunity for the exercise of all the ingenuity she possesses.

In many cases, the dress and skirts may be unfastened while the patient is still on the stretcher, and be drawn down over the feet, with the aid of assistants to gently raise the hips as much as necessary. By ripping the seams partially down toward the hems, the skirts may be lifted over the feet without raising the body, and they will then be as if opened all the way down, the patient simply lying on them, after which she can be transferred to the bed. The drawers and stockings will have to be ripped or cut down, as in the preceding case. If the arm be broken, proceed in the same way as with the male patient.

In all cases avoid injuring the clothing more than is necessary.

WASHING PATIENTS.

On the admission of any new case, the nurse should inquire of the physician as to the propriety of the patient being put into a warm bath, and if this be not thought advisable she should carefully wash the patient as thoroughly as she can without injury.

Patience, soap and water can do a great deal for the removal of lice. Ointments and washes should be used only under the direction of the physician, as most of them contain powerful drugs, and, if used in excess, are liable to produce injury, especially if the patient be young or weakly. If other means fail, permission to shave the head should be obtained.

All patients should have their faces and hands washed every morning; those in bed should have a damp napkin brought to them after a meal; the feet should be washed twice a week, and each patient should have a warm bath once a week. In many cases more than this is advisable, in others, positively necessary, but less than this should not be allowed in any case. Many patients are able to do this for themselves, but in every case it should be the nurse's duty to be sure that it is done efficiently.

With bed-lying patients the nurse should use screens to exclude draft and observation.

The aim should be to secure cleanliness with the least exhaustion to the patient. Use tepid water and castile soap.

Avoid exposing too much surface at once. First wash face, ears, and neck; next take each arm in turn, then each leg and foot, then the back, last of all, the abdomen.

Use plenty of towels for drying the patient, and friction to promote circulation.

When the skin is harsh and rough from fever, great relief is often experienced from the free use of common soft soap.

The nurse should never give an entirely cold bath, unless it is so ordered.

The hair and teeth of patients must not be neglected.

In baths in which the whole or part of the body is to remain a longer or shorter time, the temperature must be regulated by the thermometer, and the same temperature must be maintained the whole time that the patient remains in the bath, which time will be prescribed by the physician.

Temperature of simple baths.

Cold,	33°	to 65°,	Fahr.
Cool,	65°	" 75°,	"
Temperate,	75°	" 85°,	"
Tepid,	85°	" 92°,	"
Warm,	92°	" 98°,	"
Hot,	98°	" 112°,	"

DRESSING PATIENTS.

The body linen of bed-lying patients should be changed at least twice a week, and in many cases more frequently.

The following directions should be heeded by the nurse:

Never begin to change until you have all you are likely to require ready.

Be careful that there is no draft on the patient.

Let the fresh linen be properly aired and warmed beforehand.

Do not move or uncover the patient more than is absolutely necessary.

Begin by removing all sleeves from one arm, then, without moving the patient, put on all that is to go on this arm, then raise the head and shoulders, removing the soiled and adjusting the clean linen well down under the shoulders; the patient can then lie down, and the other arm be stripped and dressed. After this, the hips can be slightly raised, and the soiled clothing removed, and the clean garments arranged.

Do not let the patients help too much, and, on the

other hand, take care that they do such things as they can and ought to do for themselves.

FEEDING PATIENTS.

Florence Nightingale says there are four causes of starvation among the sick. First: defective cooking. Second: defect in choice of diet. Third: a want of judgment as to hours of taking nourishment. Fourth: a want of appetite on the part of the patient.

Object of cooking.—The object of cooking is to make food digestible and palatable. In the case of the sick, this object must never be forgotten, for with them the food is to be made ready, not for a healthy person, whose digestion can ignore some failings on the part of the cook, but for one whose powers are enfeebled by disease, and for whom the cooking must do a good part of the work of digestion.

Quality of food.—In the first place, the food should never be of uncertain quality. If the milk is in that state that suggests sourness, let the patient have some other food, the quality of which is beyond suspicion. So, also, if the meat, beef tea, or eggs, are not perfectly fresh, keep them out of the sick-room. The nurse cannot be too careful about these matters, if she does not wish to so offend the stomach of her patient that it will refuse all food.

Some directions about preparing food for the sick will be given later; but in this connection it is important to observe that the nurse should know when the food is well prepared, and when it is not.

In many cases the food is prescribed by the medical attendant, and in hospitals especially, the nurse may not have much to do with the choice of food, but in any case an observant nurse can easily find out what kind of food the patient takes with the best relish, and so report to the physician. The fact, however, that the patient likes a certain kind of food, should not lead the nurse to persist in bringing him this, and nothing else, till the relish for it is changed into disgust at the sight of it.

Variety.—She should always bear in mind that the appetite of the sick is capricious, and that variety in food cannot be dispensed with. The patient should never be worried with questions as to what he would like to eat, but any choice expressed should be gratified if possible.

Hours of taking nourishment.—If the nurse takes away the food from a patient untouched, or but just tasted of, she must not leave him without food until the time for another meal, or the same thing will be likely to occur again. Let her, instead, bring to him, at an unexpected time, nourishment of some kind, well prepared, or some little delicacy, and thus spare him the weariness and exhaustion which would have been the result of going without food.

In no case should the food be left by the bedside of a patient to await the return of appetite. There is no surer means than this of banishing all appetite.

Let the nurse ascertain from the medical attendant what quantity of milk, beef-tea, or other food he would wish the patient to take in twenty-four hours, also the quantity of stimulants, if any is being taken; then let

her make a little scale of quantities and intervals, arranging also for medicines. Food for the night must not be forgotten, or the patient will be too weak to take anything in the morning. The amount taken at a time will vary with the individual, and in the same case must often be altered to suit the caprice or necessity of the patient. Sometimes two or three teaspoonfuls every hour is better than a larger quantity at a longer interval. Some require food the moment they wake; others cannot take it till later. Practical experience and good sense will do much to teach a nurse what to do in these various cases.

Appetite.—Again, there is the consideration of want of appetite in the patient. If possible he should not see, smell, or hear about food before it is brought to him. The nurse should see that things that are intended to be hot are hot, and not lukewarm. Do not bring a patient warm tea nor coffee, a warm mutton chop, nor warm toast. For anything of this kind previously scald the plates and cups in which it is to be served. Do not let the cups be so full that a part of the contents will be spilled over into the saucer. Bring everything necessary at once, and not let the patient wait for you to go for salt, spoon, or fork. Do not think it will help the appetite of your patient for him to see you taste of his tea or broth to assure yourself that it is rightly prepared. Bring only a small quantity of food at once, and let this be made to look as attractive as possible.

SPECIAL CASES.

Fever Patients.—Patients suffering from fever require

liquid food in small quantities at frequent intervals; often not more than a teaspoonful can be given at a time, which should be given every half hour or oftener.

In feeding a patient who is either delirious or in a stupor, you may suffocate him by giving him his food suddenly, but if you rub his lips gently with a spoon, or gently draw down the lower lip with the forefinger sufficiently to allow the end of the bowl to pass, thus attracting his attention, he will swallow the food unconsciously but with safety.

The patient will be often suffering from thirst when too weak to ask for anything to drink, or even to care to drink when urged, but will be very grateful for a little cool slightly acid liquid which the nurse will put into the mouth. Bits of ice now and then will be taken eagerly.

Helpless patient.—Patients that are not entirely helpless will prefer to feed themselves, even though they have to be slow and clumsy in doing it, but the really helpless patient must be entrusted to the tender mercy of the nurse. She should first arrange the napkin well under the chin so that nothing shall drop on the clothing of patient or bed. She must take care that the food be not too hot, and that the mouthfuls she gives him are of convenient size. Above all things give the patient plenty of time. Bring a damp napkin after the meal to wipe the mouth.

Exhausted patient.—In a case of exhaustion a small amount of food must be given at a time, usually combined with some stimulant, and frequently repeated. If necessary, both the nourishment and stimulant can be given in the form of enemata.

PASSIVE EXERCISE.

METHOD GIVEN BY DR. WEIR MITCHELL IN "FAT AND BLOOD, AND HOW TO MAKE THEM."

"An hour is chosen midway between two meals, and, the patient lying in bed, the manipulator starts at the feet, and gently but firmly pinches up the skin, rolling it lightly between his fingers and going carefully over the whole foot, then the toes are bent and moved about in every direction ; and next, with the thumb and fingers, the little muscles of the foot are kneaded and pinched more largely, and the inter-osseous groups worked at with the finger-tips between the bones. At last the whole tissues of the foot are seized with both hands, and somewhat firmly rolled about. Next the ankles are dealt with in like fashion, all the crevices between the articulating bones being sought out and kneaded, while the joint is put in every possible position. The leg is next treated, first by grasping the areolar tissue, and last by industrious and deeper pinching of the large muscular masses, which for this purpose are put in a position of the utmost relaxation. The grasp of the muscles is momentary, and for the large muscles of the calf and thigh both hands act, the one contracting as the other loosens its grip. In treating the firm muscles in front of the leg, the fingers are made to roll the muscles under the cushions of the finger-tips. At brief intervals the manipulator seizes the limb in both hands, and lightly runs the grasp upwards, so as to favor the flow of venous blood-currents, and then returns to the kneading of the muscles.

"The same process is carried on in every part of the body, and special care is given to the muscles of the loins and spine, while usually the face is not touched. The belly is first treated by pinching the skin, then by deeply grasping and rolling the muscular walls in the hands, and at last the whole belly is kneaded with the heel of the hand in a succession of rapid, deep movements, passing around in the direction of the colon.

"It depends very much on the strength, endurance and practice of the manipulator how much good is done by these maneuvres.

"At first, or for a few sittings, they are to be very gentle, but by degrees they may be made more rough, and if the manipulator be a good one, it is astonishing how much strength may be used without hurting the patient.

"The early treatment should last half an hour, and should be increased by degrees to an hour, after which should follow an hour of absolute rest.

"The patient should be at once wrapped up as soon as manipulated.

"After the first few days keep the patient constantly lubricated with cocoa-oil. Vaseline is also a good lubricant."

CHAPTER IV.

ADMINISTRATION OF MEDICINES.

MEDICINE closet.—The medicines should be kept in a locked closet opening from the ward, or convenient to it. It is a good plan to have the closet arranged in divisions numbered to correspond with the beds.

Medicines and lotions should not be kept near each other. If possible, let the lotions be kept in fluted bottles, or those which have some other distinction from the medicine bottles, so that the nurse can tell by touch that she has the lotion bottle in her hand.

Schedule of hours for administration.—It is the duty of the head nurse of each ward to administer the medicines. To secure their administration as prescribed, she should keep a written schedule of hours at which they are to be taken, with the amounts. Cards or tablets may be hung over each of the divisions, in which will be, first, the number of the patient, then, the name, then the date at which the medicine was commenced. If the patient is taking several medicines, the nurse, for her own convenience, can label the bottles, A, B, C, etc. Then the cards can be arranged thus :

No. *Name* *Date*		
Hours.	*Bottle.*	*Amount.*

If any medicine is increased, diminished, or discontinued for a day or two, mention the same with date, and date of renewal. If omitted entirely the bottle should be removed from the closet.

On a slate hanging in the closet the nurse should keep a list of patients who take medicine at the same time, as before meals, after meals, at bed-time. There should be another list of those taking medicines at irregular times, with the hours for the same.

Convalescents will come to the closet at the appointed hours and receive their medicine from the nurse. To those lying in bed the medicine will be brought, always with a glass of water from which to drink after taking it. The head nurse will herself measure the medicines, but her assistant may take them to the patients as she will specify.

Exact measurement.—The *exact* quantity of medicine ordered should be measured with the graduated medicine glasses. If teaspoonful or tablespoonful doses are prescribed, she can so measure it, but these are uncertain measurements and ought not to be used.

The nurse should never trust to measuring by the eye. She may think that with certain medicines she can do it with sufficient exactness. But there is no such thing as *exact enough.* It is unsafe to allow the least moral laxity to creep in here. The nurse may think she knows the contents of a certain bottle. It may resemble something she does know about in color, consistency, smell, and taste, and yet be quite another thing, and an overdose often repeated may cause serious injury. If the nurse thinks that the medicine a patient is taking is producing any very marked symptoms, such as vomiting, diarrhœa, pain in the stomach, headache, drowsiness, convulsive movements of the muscles, running at the eyes, nose, or mouth, she should at once inform the medical attendant. And she will often be told by him to watch for certain symptoms, and on their appearance to omit the medicine.

Cleanliness of glass.—After medicine has been given to one patient, the glass should always be rinsed and wiped before being used for another.

A separate measure should be used for oily or strong-smelling medicines.

The medicine should never be poured out within sight or smell of the patient, if it is in any way disagreeable to him, and if he takes anything after it, the same should be ready with the dose.

Liquid medicines—with the exception of oil—should always be diluted with water.

Castor oil.—The nauseous taste of castor oil is covered by warm milk, or by coffee. Glycerine is another good vehicle for castor oil. First put into the glass the glycerine, in quantity equal to the oil, which you next add,

then add a few drops of some flavoring substance, as spirits of anise, lavender, or tincture of orange peel, and it can be taken without much trouble. Or, put a teaspoonful of brandy into a glass, wet the sides well with it, then pour the oil slowly on to it; on the top of the oil put another teaspoonful of brandy. Before the patient takes it, give him a little brandy with which thoroughly to rinse his mouth, and another sip after he has swallowed the oil, and he will thus be spared tasting the latter.

Cod-liver oil.—Cod-liver oil may be given in a similar manner, other spirits may be substituted for brandy. Strong coffee disguises the taste well. It may be easily taken with the froth of porter.

Volatile medicines.—When medicines are volatile, they ought to be swallowed the instant they are poured into the glass. The bottle should be immediately corked.

Effervescing medicines.—A large glass should be used for effervescing medicines, so that a portion of the dose be not lost.

Powders.—Powders should be mixed with a little sugar, water or milk.

Pills.—If a patient be unable to take pills, the pill should be put into a morsel of soft bread, or into a mass of any conserve, and water given immediately after. The smaller the pill the greater is the difficulty of swallowing it. Or, the nurse may take a small piece of damped rice paper, or a wafer made for this purpose, and putting this into a tablespoon may fold it round the pill or pills. The spoon may be then filled with water, and placed by the nurse well back in the throat of the patient, who swallows the mass without difficulty.

Suppositories.—Suppositories are medicines in a solid form, introduced into the rectum or vagina, generally either to relieve pain, or to act as astringents.

ENEMATA.

Injections into the bowel are called by this name. They are used for many purposes, and may be either purgative, sedative, stimulant or nourishing.

Administration.—The patient should lie on the left side, close to the edge of the bed, with the knees drawn up, where this is possible. The tube of the syringe should be well oiled, and the nurse, standing at the back of the patient, should pass her hand under the sheet and introduce it not more than four inches into the anal orifice upward and backward, holding it steadily there while the syringe is worked. No force should ever be used to overcome any obstruction to the passage of the tube. The injection should be done slowly, with a moderate amount of pressure, and should be stopped at once if the patient asserts that he cannot bear any more.

The fluids commonly used for this purpose are the following:

Simple enema.—Warm water, alone, or with sufficient soap rubbed into it to render it creamy. From one to two pints of water may be used.

Purgative enema.—Half an ounce or an ounce of castor oil, or olive oil, a dessert or tablespoonful of common salt, or turpentine, added to about a pint of warm water, form the purgative enemata most generally used.

Anodyne enema.—Laudanum, added to two ounces of

thin starch or arrow-root, is the sedative injection generally employed. The quantity used is directed by the doctor. The starch or arrow-root should be made with cold water.

Nutritive enema.—Nutritive enemata should be always small, for the smaller their bulk the more likely are they to be retained. They should never exceed four fluid ounces. One ounce of very strong material is often sufficient. They should be very slowly injected, so as not to stimulate the bowel to reject them. They may consist of beef-tea, soup, milk, or milk and eggs beaten up together, thickened with arrow-root or corn flour, which helps to retain the enema in the bowel.

Good way of giving feeding enema.—An excellent method of giving an enema for feeding purposes, is as follows. Get a glass syringe which will hold not less than three fluid ounces, fill it with the enema which is to be given, attach to the nozzle of the syringe a piece of slender india-rubber tubing, about three inches long, and put into that a tube such as is used for injecting an infant, or a flexible catheter, full size. Press down the piston of the syringe until the fluid escapes at the end of the catheter, which, first oiled, must then be introduced into the bowel, and the enema slowly and gently sent up.

Precautions.—In giving any enema, care should be taken to fill the syringe before introducing the tube into the rectum, so that no air be thrown into the bowel. Feeding and anodyne enemata must be pumped up very slowly.

HYPODERMIC INJECTIONS.

Hypodermic injections.—Anodynes, and sometimes other remedies, are now often given by injection under the skin. Magendie's solution of morphine is commonly thus employed, and of this from six to ten minims given at a dose. In introducing the needle, a fold of the skin is to be taken up between the finger and thumb, and with the other hand the needle is to be firmly and quickly passed horizontally to the depth of about half an inch. Then press the piston gently till the marks show that the desired quantity has entered. Take care that there are no bubbles of air in the fluid to be injected.

PASSING THE CATHETER.

For females the simplest plan is to make the patient lie upon her back, with the thighs separated and slightly drawn up. Having oiled the second finger of the right hand, the nurse introduces it between the labia, just above the entrance to the vagina, where the trained finger will detect the orifice of the urethra; along the finger, as on a director, she slips the instrument (previously well oiled) held lightly in the left hand. Thus the catheter cannot enter the vagina, while it will almost certainly slip into the orifice of the urethra.

Force should never be used if any obstruction is felt to its passage into the bladder. Let the catheter be withdrawn instead, and one of smaller size tried. Once within the cavity of the bladder, the point is felt to move freely, and the urine flows from the catheter.

To wash out the bladder or inject fluids into it.—It is sometimes necessary to wash out the bladder or inject fluids into it: for this purpose a syringe can be attached to the catheter, previously introduced. A still better plan is to fit some rubber tubing to the catheter through which the water may flow from a bowl slightly elevated with less force than when thrown, though as gently as possible, from a syringe.

CHAPTER V.

APPLICATIONS.

DRY heat.—To raise the temperature of certain parts of the body, and to relieve pain, dry heat is often ordered. It may be applied by means of hot flannels, tins, or bottles filled with hot water, by dry heated bricks, and by bags of heated sand.

Flannel.—Flannel being of a loose texture, and involving air in its meshes, is a bad conductor of heat; when heated it should be put together as loosely as possible, and applied in that state to the skin. It should never be covered by a towel, or linen, as that augments its radiating property. White flannel retains heat much longer than colored flannel.

Stomach plates and other solid media for applying warmth to the body should be covered with white or colored flannel, according as they may required to communicate an immediate or intense heat, or to convey a slighter but more permanent stimulus to the part required to be heated.

To apply dry heat to the surface of the body generally, the hot air, or lamp bath, is used. The temperature may be raised from 100° to 160°, according to the requirements of the case.

The patient must have his clothes removed and a blanket thrown over him, a framework should then be adjusted over him by which the bed-clothing may be kept from contact with the body, when it should be covered with blankets sufficient to retain the heated air. The air may be heated by means of a spirit lamp connected with an apparatus which has a tube communicating with the interior of the frame. When everything is ready the blanket covering the patient can be removed. The hot air bath should last about twenty minutes, by which time the patient will probably be perspiring profusely. He should then be dried with hot towels and wrapped in a blanket.

Moist heat.—Moist heat may be applied to either the whole or a part of the body. When the former is required the bath should be large enough to immerse the whole of the body as high as the neck.

Baths.—The temperature should be tested by the thermometer, and hot water added as necessary to maintain the same temperature while the patient remains in the bath. The medium length of time for the bath is from ten to fifteen minutes, unless otherwise ordered by the physician.

Hip-bath.—The quantity of water used for a hip-bath should be only sufficient to fill a little more than one-third of the vessel employed.

If it is required to excite the womb to greater activity when the monthly secretion is defective, the heat of the bath should be as high as it can be borne, but the time of remaining in it should not exceed fifteen minutes.

Foot-bath.—As a foot-bath is chiefly intended to cause

derivation, it should be used as hot as it can be borne, and always hot enough to redden the skin of the part immersed.

For applying moist heat locally, fomentations and poultices are used.

Fomentations.—For a fomentation, take a piece of flannel a yard square ; put a wringer into a basin, and lay the flannel, doubled into a small space, on the wringer. Pour boiling water on it, and wring it until no more water can be squeezed from the flannel. Fold it the required size, and lay it on the patient, taking care that it is not too hot, although it should be as hot as it can be comfortably borne. Cover with a dry flannel, oiled silk or rubber cloth.

Turpentine stupe.—When a turpentine stupe is ordered the flannel should be wrung out of boiling water, as before, and a teaspoonful of turpentine sprinkled on it, care being taken that it is well spread through the flannel, or it will be apt to raise blisters in spots. The nurse should examine the skin from time to time as the fomentation is removed, as turpentine applied too often on the same surface will produce severe blisters, and in some persons the skin is much more susceptible to irritation than in others. In cases of acute pain a teaspoonful of laudanum may be ordered to be used in the same way as the turpentine.

Wringers.—Wringers are made as follows: A piece of coarse toweling should be cut into widths of sixteen inches and lengths of thirty-two inches. The sides must be firmly hemmed or bound ; the ends must have a hem wide enough to admit the wringer-stick, which is gener-

ally from four to five inches in circumference. When the wringer is to be used, run the sticks through the hems, gathering the wringer into the middle of the stick. Spread the wringer out in an empty basin, leaving the sticks hanging over the edges; put the flannel for the fomentation in the basin on the wringer, pour on the boiling water, fold the wringer over the flannel, and taking a stick in each hand twist them in opposite directions until every drop of water that can be squeezed out is wrung from the flannel. The fomentation should be carried in the wringer to the bedside and there unfolded. It should be as hot as it can be borne, and wrung out as dry as possible.

In a private house where the conveniences for wringing are not at hand, the hot flannel can be wrung out quite well by being placed in a towel without the sticks at the ends; or, the flannel may be wrung out of water of a comfortable temperature to the hands, and then a very hot iron passed over it.

Fomentations are very valuable agents for the relief of pain. In violent pain they should be changed as often as every ten or fifteen minutes. If the pain is less severe, once in one, two, or three hours, will be often enough. But in no case should they be allowed to become cold. Fomentations are often useful where the patient has difficulty in passing water.

Spongio-piline is a good material for fomentation.

A double layer of lint, wrung in a towel after being steeped in boiling water, and covered with light india-rubber cloth, forms the best fomentation for long continued application.

POULTICES.

Poultices.—Poultices are employed in the treatment of abscesses, suppurating wounds, inflammation, and pain. In making them the nurse should aim to have them hot, smooth, and light.

Linseed-meal poultice.—First scald out the basin in which the poultice is to be made. Then pour in boiling water according to the size of the poultice required. For a linseed-meal poultice, add gradually sufficient linseed-meal to form a thick paste, stirring constantly one way until it is of the proper consistence and smoothness. It may be spread on linen, or muslin.

Charcoal poultice.—For a charcoal poultice take two ounces of bread crumbs, and soak for ten minutes in ten ounces of boiling water; then mix, and add gradually one-half an ounce of powdered wood-charcoal, and one and a half ounces of linseed-meal. The whole should be well stirred together, and then spread and applied in the ordinary manner.

Chlorinated soda poultice.—A chlorinated soda poultice is made like a linseed-meal poultice, but consists of two parts of linseed-meal to one of chlorinated soda mixed with boiling water.

Yeast poultice.—A yeast poultice is made by mixing a pound of flour or linseed-meal, or oat-meal, with half a pint of yeast. The mixture is to be heated and carefully stirred.

All poultices are made with boiling water, except

yeast poultices. With them the temperature should not be over 100°.

Mustard poultice.—For a mustard poultice, or plaster, a sufficient quantity of powered mustard should be taken to make a thin paste the required size. This should be mixed with boiling water, with a small quantity of vinegar added, if a very strong poultice is required, and spread on brown paper, or linen, with a piece of thin muslin over it.

A mustard poultice should generally be kept on from ten to twenty minutes, but some skins will bear it much longer than others. If the skin is very irritable afterwards, a little flour should be sprinkled over it. This will remove the burning sensation.

Mustard and linseed poultice.—Mustard poultices are often mixed with linseed meal, when a milder form is required than of mustard alone. After the use of any kind of mustard poultice, the skin should be carefully wiped with something very soft, so that no mustard be left behind.

Caution.—It is necessary to remember when using any kind of poultice for children that their skin is more tender and sensitive than that of older persons. The same caution applies to the use of heat when the patient is paralyzed, as sloughing may follow after a poultice which has been too hot. Care should be taken in poulticing never to cover the umbilicus or nipples. In poultices a hole should be cut when strapping or bandaging, if it is necessary to cover them, a double fold of lint should be placed over them, before crossing with the bandage or plaster.

Preparing patient.—When a poultice is to be applied, the nurse should get her patient ready first. If he has a wound it should be thoroughly washed, and lightly covered. Then the poultice should be made quickly, and applied as warm as the patient can bear it. If the poultice is first made, and kept warm at the fire while the patient is prepared, the water evaporates, and, instead of a poultice, a hard, dry cake is formed.

INHALATION.

The method of applying heat and moisture in affections of the throat and chest is termed inhalation. In hospitals an apparatus called an inhaler is generally used. Where this cannot be obtained a cone can be made of paper, and this can be placed over a pitcher containing boiling hot water, medicated as desired. The patient should place the mouth-piece of the inhaler, or the small end of the paper cone in, or against the mouth, and breath quietly.

SPRAY DISPERSER.

Spray.—The spray disperser is an apparatus contrived for the formation of spray, and for its inhalation. The usual form of it is that of two india-rubber balls, by which air is forced so rapidly through a tube as to cause a vacuum in a lower tube below it, and the rapid rise of liquid from the bottle in which the tube is fixed.

This instrument supplies the place of gargles, and is very useful in the case of sore throat. Iced water and medicated substances are thus used.

COLD.

Cold.—Cold may be used to arrest bleeding, or subdue inflammation.

The principal intention of many lotions is to abstract heat by means of the evaporation which they produce. The inflamed part, therefore, should be covered with a single layer of thin linen, or muslin—the thinner the better—and kept constantly cool by dropping cold water, or an evaporating lotion, on it.

Siphons.—The best way of keeping it wet is by means of a piece of worsted passing to it from a vessel raised somewhat above the part ; or a small siphon may be fitted to the vessel, by which the amount of fluid can be accurately controlled.

Arrangement of bed.—The bed near the part must be arranged with rubber-cloth, raised on a small pad towards the center, with a broad piece hanging over the mattress at the side, to carry off superfluous water into a vessel of some sort put to receive it.

Ice.—Ice may be broken up into pieces, and put into a bladder, or an india-rubber ice bag. The bladder should not be more than half full, and it should be securely tied around the neck.

The best way of applying ice to the head is to place a smooth piece of ice, two or three inches long, and about one and a half broad, in a cup of soft sponge, and pass it round and round over the head. The sponge absorbs the water, and the pain of the cold is avoided.

LEECHES.

Leeches.—Leeches are applied for the purpose of removing a small quantity of blood from any locality in which it is inconvenient to use any other means of blood-letting, but they should never be applied immediately over a large vein for fear of inflammation or troublesome bleeding.

How to make them take hold.—When leeches are to be applied to a part it should first be well washed. If they refuse to take hold moisten the surface with a little cream, milk, or fresh blood. Sometimes when they persist in refusing to bite, if they are put into a plate with some beer, and then held firmly by the tail they will fix themselves almost immediately.

To make them relax hold.—When leeches have taken their fill they usually drop off; but sometimes they will stick on for a long time. In such a case the application of a little salt will cause them readily to relax their hold.

Quantity of blood.—The quantity of blood obtained by one leech is estimated at a little more than a teaspoonful. It is often desired to increase this, and it may be done by means of a fomentation or poultice placed over the bites. It is then necessary to watch carefully that the bleeding does not become excessive, as some persons bleed much more easily than others.

To stop bleeding.—The bleeding from a leech-bite, if excessive, may generally be stopped by the pressure of the finger; but if this be unsuccessful it is better to re-

port to the physician at once. Should there be any delay in his arrival, a little tincture of iron, or a point of caustic may arrest the bleeding. If the patient should become faint while the fomentation is still on, remove it at once, apply a little dry lint to each bite to arrest the bleeding, and send for the doctor. A small quantity of stimulant may be given without delay.

Leeches that have been once applied are seldom of any further use; but if it should be considered desirable to try, the leeches should be placed in a plate with a little salt and water, and when they have relieved themselves of the greater part of the blood which they have swallowed, they should be placed in a jar of clean water by themselves.

Leeches to the womb.—It is sometimes necessary to apply leeches to the lips of the womb. The patient must lie on the back with the thighs flexed and separated, and the speculum be introduced. Leech-glasses will be required to apply the leeches, or if these be not at hand, small sized test-tubes will answer.

CUPPING.

Cupping. Two kinds.—Cupping is of two kinds, dry and wet cupping. The following articles are used in both operations, with the addition of an instrument for scarifying, in the case of wet cupping. Four or five small glasses specially made for this purpose, or in the absence of these, common tumblers may be used, some blotting paper or cotton-wool, a little alcohol in a saucer, and a lighted candle or spirit lamp.

The first portion of the operation is the same in both cases.

Applying the cups.—The glasses should be previously warmed, and some pieces of blotting paper, about two inches square, be set to soak in the alcohol. Then taking a glass in the right hand, the nurse should light a piece of the blotting paper, saturated with alcohol, and throw it into the glass, and after letting it burn for two or three seconds, should invert the glass suddenly over the selected spot, and so on with each in succession. A bladder will be seen to rise almost immediately in the interior of each glass, and now, if wet cupping be desired, the glass must be removed, the scarificator applied to the part, and the glass re-applied as before.

Removing.—The glasses may be easily removed by inserting the thumb-nail between the rim of the glass and the skin.

Time.—The glasses may be left on for periods varying from five minutes to half an hour.

BLISTERS.

Blisters.—Blisters are of different shape, according to the part to which they are applied; the time required for their action varies, but is usually from six to eight hours. By gently raising the edge on one side, the question as to the appearance of the blister may be easily settled.

Dressing.—When the skin is properly raised, the blister may be dressed in one of two ways, according as whether it is desired to keep open, or to heal the blistered surface. In the latter case, after the plaster has been

carefully removed, the cuticle should be snipped at the most depending part, and the fluid evacuated into a small cup held to receive it. Place a little cotton wool around to prevent the fluid running over the skin. It should then be dressed with a piece of lint, spread with simple ointment or cosmoline.

Open blister.—If, on the contrary, it is desired to keep the blister open, the cuticle should be removed by cutting all round the edge with a pair of scissors, after which it will be dressed with some irritating ointment as ordered.

LOTIONS.

Lotions.—Lotions are usually applied on lint or rag which has been previously soaked in the lotion required. If it is desired to produce a cooling effect by the evaporation of the lotion, only one layer of very thin material should be used.

Evaporating lotion. A simple evaporating lotion is one part of alcohol to eight of water. Bay rum or cologne may be substituted for the alcohol. The following is a very good formula: Muriate of ammonia, 12 grs.; alcohol, 36 minims; water, 1 oz.

Drops for the eyes.—When a nurse is ordered to drop a lotion into the eye, she should always use a new camel's hair brush for the purpose—unless otherwise directed—as with that it is almost impossible to injure the eye if the patient should start suddenly, which he is very likely to do should the lotion cause him some pain.

LINIMENTS.

Liniment.—When any remedy in a liquid form is ap

plied to a part by rubbing, it is called a liniment, and may be either soothing, stimulating, or counter-irritant.

Caution.—Great care must be taken with liniments and lotions that they be not administered internally [see page 36].

CHAPTER VI.

DRESSING OF WOUNDS.

APPARATUS GENERALLY EMPLOYED IN DRESSING.

STICKING PLASTER.—Sticking plaster, called also adhesive plaster, or resin plaster, is used to bring the edges of wounds together, and to retain applications in position. It should be cut in strips varying in breadth from a quarter of a inch to an inch and a half, and in the direction of the length of the web, and not across the breadth, as it will stretch and become useless if so cut. The best mode of heating it is by applying the linen side to a tin vessel containing hot water. The flame of an alcohol lamp or candle may also be used for this purpose.

The edges of the wound should be held together with the finger and thumb of the left hand, while one end of the strip, held in the right hand, should be laid on the skin at a distance, and brought across the wound tightly.

Before the application of sticking plaster to any part of the body it should be well dried, and all hairs be shaved off.

Isinglass plaster.—Isinglass plaster is also employed for bringing together the edges of wounds. It is rendered sticky by moistening the coated side with a damp

sponge, care being taken not to rub the sponge more than once over it.

Bandages.—Bandages are used to retain dressings in position.

Lint.—Lint is a soft linen woven material, with a nap on one side. It should always be cut with scissors and not torn, as it will pull into shreds if the latter be attempted.

Charpie.—Charpie is composed of ravelings or shreds torn or scraped from linen.

Oakum.—Oakum is old rope which has been shredded and carded. It is of a bright brown color, with a tarry odor. A little of the oakum is teased and drawn into a suitable shape for covering the wound. It absorbs the discharge from wounds, and, being impregnated with tar, acts as disinfectant to destroy any bad odor arising from them.

Tow.—Tow is the fibre of flax or hemp teased and loosely carded into sheets and done up in rolls. It is employed to absorb discharges from wounds, as a substitute for sponges in washing wounds, and for stuffing pads for splints.

Disinfectants.—Disinfectants of various kinds are used in washing wounds. One commonly used is a solution of carbolic acid, one part to one hundred parts of water.

The dressing-tray.—The dressing-tray should be provided with the following materials and appliances necessary in dressing wounds: a pair of dressing forceps, for removing any particles of dressing or other matter which may adhere to the wound, and also for introducing small portions of lint or other dressing into a wound; a pair

of strong, sharp scissors, with which to cut lint, sticking-plaster, and other dressing material; a pair of sharp-pointed scissors, useful in dressing blisters; a razor, for shaving hairy surfaces near a wound; a small silver probe, to convey small pieces of dressing into deep openings; a scalpel; a spatula; a caustic-holder; pins; needles; white thread; silk; lint; cotton-wool; tow; bandages; sticking plaster; soft rags.

Other things needed.—There are other things which the nurse must get ready before proceeding to uncover the wound. The bed must be protected by a rubber cloth. The tin for heating the sticking-plaster must be filled with hot water. Two basins are necessary—one to be placed below the part to be washed, in such a position as to catch the water as it flows off the wound, while the other should contain the fresh water which is to trickle over the wound. Then there should be a bowl for the soiled dressings, warm water, a disinfectant lotion, and any special ointment, or dressing, as ordered.

Sponges.—Sponges are objectionable for dressing wounds, as they are liable to be the means of conveying poisonous matter from one wound or sore to another. Tow, or cotton-wool soaked in water are much better, as they can be destroyed after use, and thus insure a clean thing each time, and prevent any chance of the same thing being used for more than one patient.

When proceed to uncover wounds.—Wounds should never be uncovered for the purpose of being dressed until everything that is likely to be required during the process is at hand; the only exception to this rule being those wounds which require poulticing, when the old

dressing should be removed, the discharges cleaned away, and the wound lightly covered with a piece of clean linen until the poultice is ready. In the case of a patient who is burnt over a large surface of the body, only a small part should be uncovered at a time.

Precaution.—If the surgical nurse has any crack or cut on her hands it should be covered with adhesive plaster before commencing the dressing. If the skin is not quite smooth around the nails, if there is any scratch or hang-nail, the nurse would do well to put simple cerate or soap all around the nails.

Necessary care.—After attending to one patient, the nurse must put the soiled dressings in the proper receptacle, wash and disinfect all vessels and utensils, carefully wash her hands in soap and water, and in a disinfectant solution, as a five per cent. solution of carbolic acid, before going to another patient. Pyæmia and erysipelas should be the dread of a surgical nurse, and too great care cannot be taken to prevent any possible contamination, in going from one patient to another.

In case of an infected patient he should if possible be removed from the ward; but if this cannot be done he should be isolated as much as possible, and on no consideration should any of his bedding or clothing be used for any other patient until it has undergone the most thorough washing and disinfecting.

Removing dressing.—The greatest care must be taken in removing dressings. If adherent to a wound, they should never be pulled off sharply, but should be moistened by bathing with warm water, or by the application of a bread poultice. The edges of the dressing should be wet,

and then always raised all the way round, so that the last part that comes off should be that in the centre of the wound. In any case draw towards the wound, and when one end is loosened so far, the other end must be loosened in the same way, so that the wound may not be opened or any adhesions destroyed; and in washing round the wound, wash towards the sore and not away from it.

Cleansing.—Discharges should be cleansed away from the edges of a wound, and from the surrounding parts, but the surface of the wound itself should be left undisturbed.

If the case be one of operation, the nurse should know how many ligatures there are, so that she may know when any come away. She should never attempt to remove a ligature unless it is lying loose in the wound.

To cleanse the wound itself, it is best to use a syringe by which a continuous flow can be kept up.

To wash a recently-inflicted wound cold water should be employed, as it has a tendency to stop the bleeding, while warm water favors it; but in the case of old wounds or ulcers, warm water at a temperature of about 98°, is better suited, being more grateful to the patient, and more effective in softening hardened dressings, and cleansing a foul surface. Some disinfecting fluid should be added to the water when the discharge is offensive, and the washing of the wound continued until the offensive smell is destroyed.

By means of the steady flow of water from the syringe the discharges are easily got rid of, and no part of the

instrument need come in actual contact with the patient. The fluid which has traversed the affected part should be received in a basin previously placed in a convenient position.

Caution.—In using the syringe the nurse must be careful not to let the fluid fly from the wound into her eyes, as the consequences would be most serious. She must also be careful not to touch the eyes with the fingers while engaged in dressing a wound.

If the substance of which the plaster is composed adheres to the skin and cannot be washed, a little oil will effect its removal.

KINDS OF DRESSINGS.

Dry dressing.—Dry dressing is generally used as the first application to wounds. It consists of plaster and dry lint. The edges of the wound are brought together as nearly as possible by strips of plaster, and over these are placed a couple of folds of dry lint bound down by a few more strips of plaster. A bandage may be applied over the whole if in a position to admit of it.

Dry dressing may be allowed to remain on two or three days before it is removed. In the removal of this kind of dressing especial care must be taken to saturate the lint thoroughly with warm water while it is gently pulled away, so as to avoid tearing open the wound, and breaking down the union which may have taken place.

Antiseptic dressing.—This mode of dressing has been lately introduced by Professor Lister, and for its use special carbolic acid dressings, solutions, and the spray apparatus are required.

Water dressing.—Water dressing is the application to a sore or wound of a piece of lint, soft linen, or charpie, saturated with water, and covered over with oiled silk, or thin india-rubber cloth, to prevent evaporation or the escape of moisture into the surrounding bed-clothes.

The lint should be double, and of a size according to the surface to be covered. The waterproof material should be cut a little larger than the lint. Care should be taken that none of the lint projects from under the edge of the covering, for if such be the case the water will escape into the bandage and clothes, leaving the lint dry and sticking to the wound. Over the whole may be placed a common roller bandage.

Water dressing should be renewed twice in every twenty-four hours, or more often if there be much discharge.

Evaporating dressing.—Evaporating dressing consists of a single fold of lint placed over the injured part, and freely exposed to the atmosphere to favor evaporation. The object in view is the production of cold by evaporation, and consequently a low temperature of the injured part. The lint should be of considerable size, and kept constantly wet, and the limb to which it is applied should be placed on a water-proof sheet, under a cradle, and completely uncovered by bed-clothes.

Irrigation.—Irrigation is a stream of water conducted over an injured part to prevent inflammation [see page 51].

Ointment dressing.—Ointments of various kinds are frequently used as dressings for ulcers and wounds. The ointment is spread with a spatula in a thin layer on one

side of lint. The lint thus prepared is applied to the part, and maintained in position by a few cross strips of plaster, and if necessary a roller bandage. Once a day will be sufficient to dress an ulcer, except when the discharge is profuse, when it may be necessary to renew the application two or three times a day. Simple ointment is employed to prevent applications sticking to the surface of a sore.

BANDAGES.

Texture.—Bandages are made of unbleached muslin or flannel, torn or woven into strips which vary in breadth and length according to the part for which they are required.

Breadth and length.—For the fingers, the breadth is about three-quarters of an inch ; for the head and upper extremity, two and a half inches ; and for the body and lower extremity, three inches. For the fingers, the length is from a yard to a yard and a half ; for the head and upper extremity, three to six yards ; for the lower extremity and body, six to eight yards.

Rolling a bandage.—Before applying a bandage it is necessary that it should be neatly and firmly rolled. It is rolled either with a single head or a double head.

To roll a bandage with a single head.—One end of the bandage, being folded four or five times upon itself, is made into a small roll, which is seized by the fingers of both hands, and both thumbs placed on the top of it ; while the unrolled bandage, coming from the upper side of the roll over the fingers, is spread out on the floor in front of the person about to roll it. The thumbs now

by an alternate movement, make the roll revolve inward on its own axis, while the fingers hold it fixed in position between the two hands. This movement is continued until the whole of the bandage is wound tightly and evenly round the original roll. The end should then be fastened by a stitch, pin, or thread, to prevent it unrolling.

To roll a bandage with a double head.—The bandage should first be marked at its center, rolled from one end to this mark, and fastened, and then rolled in like manner from the other end.

Plaster of Paris bandage or splint.—A plaster of Paris bandage is usually made as follows: Dust dry powdered gypsum into the meshes of a coarse muslin bandage, and roll it up ready for use.

Envelope the limb in a flannel roller or layer of cotton-wool, soak the muslin roller, previously prepared, in water, and apply it over the flannel as an ordinary roller; then rub it over with a thick paste of gypsum and water, making the outside perfectly smooth. Keep the limb in a proper position while the plaster sets, which it will in a few minutes.

SPLINT PADDING.

Splints made of wood, tin, or japanned iron, require to be lined with some description of soft padding before application.

The head nurse of a ward should always keep one complete set of pads to the most commonly-used splints in readiness for any emergency.

Very good pads are made of three or more thicknesses of old blankets, or woolen rugs, covered on both sides with old linen sheeting, and quilted through in a large diamond pattern. These pads will wash. Another pad is made by teasing tow, covering it with soft muslin, and quilting it in the same way.

CHAPTER VII.

OPERATIONS.

PREPARATION OF ROOM.

OPERATING-TABLE.—The operating-table must be furnished with a mattress and pillows, over which should be spread the sacking stretcher, covered by a clean sheet. A piece of waterproof sheeting should be ready to put round or under the patient, and a blanket to cover him. A wooden tray with sawdust should be under the table ready for use.

Articles necessary.—The nurse should see that there are plenty of towels, wash-hand-basins and soap. Hot and cold water should be at hand, a solution of carbolic acid, carbolized oil, small bowls to receive discharges, sponges, flannel and muslin bandages of various sizes, cotton-wool, tow, lint, charpie, linen compresses, pins, needles, thread. It is well to have a little brandy on hand in case of patient being faint.

Sponges.—Great care should be taken to see that the sponges are perfectly clean. They should be well washed in a solution of carbolic acid, then passed through several additions of clean cold water, and then left to stand in cold water until they are required.

If new sponges are to be used they must be perfectly free from the sand and little pieces of shell which are always to be found in them. They should be put in cold water to soak for two or three days previous to the time when they will be used, when they must be frequently squeezed out and the water changed. The shell will require to be picked out by the fingers, and sometimes even to be cut out with the scissors. Among the sponges there must always be a number of pieces from one or two inches square and upwards.

During the operation the nurse is usually required to clean and squeeze the sponges used. They should be washed in cold water and squeezed as dry as possible; the best way being to place them in a cloth, and turn the two ends rapidly in opposite directions.

PREPARATION OF PATIENT.

Patient before the operation.—If possible, the patient should have a bath on the morning of the operation. If ether is to be administered the patient should have a pint of beef tea *four hours before* the operation, and should have *nothing else*, except perhaps a little brandy, before the operation. In all operations on the parts about the bladder and rectum, an enema should be administered on the morning of the operation, and in many cases the bladder emptied by the catheter.

The patient's clothes should be properly arranged beforehand. All bands should invariably be loosened. The part to be operated on should be covered only by a loose article of dress, which can be thrown off in a moment.

All dressings should be removed, and any wounds washed clean and lightly covered with a piece of wet lint or a turn or two of a roller.

The bed which is to receive the patient should be made ready before the operation.

After the operation.—After the operation the patient should be laid on his back on a clean bed, with his head somewhat raised so that he can breathe freely; care must be taken not to allow the chin to drop on the chest. He should be allowed plenty of fresh air, but at the same time be kept very warm, particularly about the feet, which should be wrapped in hot flannel or have hot bottles laid near them. If vomiting occur, he may be turned on his side and the head held over a basin, or if he cannot be turned, the head and body may generally be raised. Sucking small pieces of ice will generally check sickness or vomiting.

The nurse must be on the alert to see if any bleeding occur. Blood is most liable to escape at the lower part of a wound. Place a clean towel in such a way that the blood, if there is any, may soak into it, so that no considerable portion can be lost without noticing it.

The patient requires to be carefully watched, and if any unusual depression be observed, it must be brought at once to the notice of the surgeon in charge.

After most operations the patient should be prevented from frequently moving his position in bed, and in many cases all movement is forbidden. Nourishment must be given in accordance with the special instructions given on that point.

IMPORTANT POINTS IN SPECIAL OPERATIONS.

Amputation.—In amputations the plaster used for keeping flaps together should vary from one-half inch in the forearm to one and a half inches in the thigh; when changing, one piece only should be removed at a time, and be immediately replaced by a fresh one. The plaster should never be applied so as to press upon the end of the bone. The limb should be slightly raised, and a cradle placed over it to take off the weight of the bed clothes.

The patient should never be left alone after an amputation until all the ligatures have come away, as bleeding might come on at any time, in which case the nurse must at once make pressure at the bleeding point, and send for the surgeon. Ligatures of the small arteries usually separate in a week or ten days, but those securing the larger ones, as the femoral, do not come away until after two or three weeks.

Excision and resection of joints.—The surgeon will usually select a special splint for any particular case, and the nurse will be required to pad it. It is well to remember that a small piece of oiled-silk should be placed on the splint under where the wound comes, to prevent the splint from being soiled by the discharges. This can be so laid on that it can be withdrawn from under the wound without raising the limb. The clean lint and the oiled silk can be tacked on to the dirty piece, and be gently drawn through without disturbing the limb or giving pain.

The extremity of the limb from which a joint has been removed should be kept wrapped up in cotton-wool, as otherwise the patient is very likely to feel the cold for the first few days.

Hernia.—A hernia is a protrusion of a part of the bowels through an unnatural opening. In many cases the bowel can be returned and kept in position by wearing a well-fitting truss; but where an operation has been necessary, the patient should be kept strictly in the recumbent position, and if he vomit, or have a violent fit of coughing, it is a useful precaution for the nurse to support the wound with her hand during this time of extra pressure. No food whatever should be given except that ordered by the surgeon, and that is usually ice, iced milk, beef tea, and a little brandy or wine for a few days.

Lithotomy.—Lithotomy is the operation for removing stone from the bladder by cutting. After the operation the patient should be so placed in the bed that the discharges should either drain away at once, or be easily removed before they accumulate. The nurse should carefully notice whether any fragment of stone come away, and how much urine, if any, passes through the natural opening.

Lithotrity.—Lithotrity is the operation of crushing a stone in the bladder. The patient should be kept in bed, and all the water passed should be collected and filtered, so that any fragment of stone that may escape may be reserved for the observation of the surgeon.

Ovariotomy.—The patient should be kept quiet in bed on a simple, nourishing diet for three or four days previous to the operation, and on that day should have no

food except a pint of beef tea and a little brandy three or four hours before the operation; an enema should be administered, and the bladder emptied by the catheter beforehand.

The room in which the operation is to be performed must be previously well warmed, and a constant temperature of about 70° be maintained; the air may also be kept moist by keeping a kettle of water boiling on the fire. A supply of fresh air should be secured without exposing the patient to a draught. The following is a list of things the nurse should provide: a small bath, to hold the fluid; one or two buckets; three or four bleeding bowls; two dozen sponges, quite new, and perfectly clean; one dozen towels; several basins with clean, cold water, to wash the sponges; boiling water, with four *new* yard-squares of flannel, previously passed through water to make them soft, ready for fomentations, if required; *new* wringers; olive oil; carbolic lotion; brandy; sticking plaster and lint; a rib roller of cotton, and one of flannel; a many-tailed bandage, of ten or twelve inches wide, and one yard and a quarter long.

The dress of the patient should be such as to necessitate the least possible movement after the operation. In any changes of bed or body linen, care must be taken to have everything well aired and warmed beforehand. Nothing cold must be allowed to touch the patient. The bed-pan must be warmed with hot water, the edge oiled so as to slip readily into position. The nurse will receive full instructions from the operator in regard to the care of the patient after the operation, as to food, temperature of room, etc.

Cleft palate.—After this operation the patient must neither be allowed to speak nor take solid food until he has permission from the surgeon. The nurse must be watchful, and make sure that no blood runs down the throat unnoticed by her.

Tracheotomy.—The nursing of a patient after tracheotomy requires great skill and attention. The tube must be kept free from clogging by means of a feather, and the inner one has to be removed from time to time for thorough cleansing, when care has to be taken to prevent pulling out both tubes together.

The head and chest of the patient must be well supported by pillows, care being taken that the head be not pressed forward upon the chest, and that the pillows at the back shall be so placed as to give the lungs free play.

When the cough comes on the nurse must be instantly on hand to give all the help she can to prevent the patient from being suffocated. Children, especially, are apt to throw themselves about, and even to clutch at the tube with their fingers, by which means they might fall into a position that would be fatal, or pull the tube out of the throat. When attending to the patient during the cough, the nurse must be careful that she does not put her own face near enough to catch by accident any discharge from the tube, which sometimes is forced out with some violence, as the result would be dangerous to herself, particularly where the operation had been performed on a patient suffering from diphtheria.

The room is generally kept at a temperature of 70°, and the air moist by the aid of steam from boiling water.

If enemata be ordered, the nurse must remember that

the patient cannot lie down with safety. She must make such an arrangement of pillows and supports as will enable her to place her patient in such a position as would let the syringe act.

CHAPTER VIII.

SOME POINTS IN REGARD TO SPECIAL MEDICAL CASES.

FEVERS.

BED.—The bed for a fever patient should be provided with a rubber sheet and draw-sheet. It should not be near that of another patient seriously ill.

Ventilation.—Ventilation, always important, is doubly so here, and in order that the air the patient breathes be pure, there must be a constant supply of fresh air from open windows and ventilators. The patient need not be chilled in doing this, but may be kept warm with bed clothes and hot bottles.

Guard against bed-sores.—In fever a patient lies on his back without moving much, and often the evacuations are passed almost without his cognizance; bed-sores must be guarded against, and air or water cushions used as necessary to take off pressure and prevent inflammation. Where the confinement to bed is likely to be prolonged, a water bed, if procurable, should be used.

Cleanliness.—The clothing of the bed and patient should be changed daily, and oftener if necessary.

Sponging.—When frequent sponging of the body with

cold or tepid water, with or without vinegar or alcohol, is ordered, only a small portion should be sponged at a time. The sponge should be passed in only one direction, and that downward, and the skin must be dried with a warm, soft towel, all rubbing being avoided.

Cold pack.—To give a cold pack, take all the clothes off the bed; lay over the mattress two comfortables and a blanket, or three blankets; wring a sheet out in cold water and place over the whole. Then put the patient on the bed, the clothing having previously been removed. Fold one side of the sheet over the patient under the arms, then the other side over the arms; tuck in well around the neck. Then wrap blankets and comfortables over in the same way. Twenty minutes is the average time for keeping a patient in the pack. The patient should feel warm in about five minutes, and in ten minutes will usually be comfortable enough to go to sleep, if not too sick.

Use a small slice of lemon or a little salt to cleanse the teeth and gums, rubbing it gently over teeth, tongue, and lips. Then with a little pure cold water and a charpie brush rapidly wash over the same. The mouth may be washed with carbolic acid spray.

The feet and legs of the patient must be examined from time to time to see that they do not become cold. Where any tendency to chill is discovered, hot bottles, or warm flannels, with some warm drink, should be made use of until the temperature is restored.

The patient must not be annoyed by flies. By tying strings across the bed, gauze or netting may be supported away from the patient's face.

Hours for nourishment and stimulants will be exactly ordered by the physician. The diet is generally liquid, consisting of milk, broths, thin gruel and beef tea. Cooling drinks are given in small quantities at frequent intervals. Small bits of ice are very refreshing. The nurse must ascertain from the physician if the patient should be wakened to take either nourishment or medicine.

Every contrivance must be employed to save the patient's strength during the first stage of convalescence. Pillows of different forms and sizes should be so placed as to prop the body into the most comfortable position for the time. This is the stage at which the nurse must exercise her ingenuity to interest and amuse the patient.

ERUPTIVE FEVERS.

Many of the directions already given for fevers should also be followed in eruptive fevers.

For the early stages, when the skin is very hot, a warm bath or tepid sponging will prove refreshing, taking care that the patient does not become chilled. Cleanse the eyes and nostrils with water and a piece of lint as often as required. In small-pox when the pustules have burst this is all that is practicable. In this disease early application of light poultices to the face have been found a great comfort and a protection against pitting. To allay itching, oil the pustules on the face, neck and body with olive oil, cold cream, etc. This oiling of the body is very useful also in scarlet fever, and helps to lower the temperature. Cocoa butter is frequently used for this purpose. In small-pox the nurse must examine the body

carefully, and if she finds any signs of abscess forming should report it to the physician.

BED-SORES—PREVENTION AND TREATMENT.

From the first beginning of a confinement to the bed which is likely to be a long one, the nurse must bear in mind the liability of bed-sores, and the necessity of using all possible care for preventing them.

The patient must be kept clean and dry. This is a very difficult thing to do in some cases, and requires the most constant care and attention on the part of the nurse. In cases of paralysis of the lower part of the body, where the patient is unable to turn in bed, and the evacuations are passed involuntarily, bed-sores can be avoided only by the most unceasing attention to cleanliness. The back should be washed with warm water and soap, and well dried with a soft towel. Afterwards a little oxide of zinc powder may be used to insure perfect dryness. If the back be well rubbed with some spirits, or alcohol and water, it tends to harden the skin, and renders it less likely to become sore. The nurse should examine the back every day, and if she finds that her patient is threatened with a sore, let her take a piece of amadon plaster, an inch larger all round than the size of the tender skin, and from the centre of this cut another just large enough to prevent the plaster touching the tenderest part of the threatened sore. If this circular piece of plaster be then applied, the thickness of it will remove the pressure on the part.

Circular water and air cushions are a great aid in pre-

venting bed-sores, and give great relief where one actually exists. Circular pillows with a hole in the centre may also be made from old, soft linen, and stuffed with tow.

Another very important thing to be remembered in the prevention of bed-sores, is the necessity of keeping the under sheet smooth and free from wrinkles or crumbs.

CHAPTER IX.

EMERGENCIES.

THE following articles are often required in the treatment of emergencies, and the head nurse of a surgical ward should have them where they may be obtained at a moment's notice :

Articles often required.—Tins for applying hot water to the feet or abdomen, mustard and linseed meal for poultices, cotton-wool, tow, lint, bandages, pads for the most commonly-used splints, sponges, scissors, pins, sticking-plaster, olive oil, sand-bags, fillets, extra pillows, chaff pillows, brandy, a tourniquette, an artery forceps, and some ligatures.

Preparation of bed.—There should be certain beds reserved for accidents. These should always be kept ready for use. Under the mattress should be placed fracture boards, to prevent the bed from sinking in the centre. Where not required these can afterwards be removed. The bed should be provided with a large rubber sheet for the protection of the mattress, and a draw-sheet should be placed across the middle of the bed. It may be needed there, or be used for the protection of the pillow, as the nature of the accident may require. A change of linen for the patient should be placed on the bed.

FRACTURES.

Different kinds of fracture.—Fractures may be simple, compound, and comminuted.

Simple.—When a bone is broken in one place without any external wound.

Compound.—When a bone is broken in one place, and there is an external wound leading down to the broken bone.

Comminuted.—When a bone is broken in two or more places, as when a splinter of bone is broken off.

What can be done by the nurse.—In the following cases, if the nurse has to wait the arrival of the surgeon, she can in the mean time proceed according to these simple directions:

Skull.—Put the patient in bed, and keep wet lint applied over the seat of injury.

Collar-bone.—Keep the patient in bed, without a pillow, with the arm on the injured side folded across the chest.

Ribs.—The patient should remain in bed, should have a spittoon within reach, and the character of the expectoration be noticed.

Thigh, leg, or arms.—The limb should be temporarily kept in position by means of sand-bags or pillows secured by fillets.

HEMORRHAGE.

Three methods of arresting hemorrhage.—There are three methods of stopping bleeding, with which the nurse should be familiar:

1. Pressure at the bleeding point. Blood may often be seen to flow from one small point only of a wound; slight pressure with one finger, or the ball of the thumb over the spot will usually stop it, as long as the pressure is kept up, and often altogether, even after the pressure is removed.

2. Pressure on the main artery supplying the wound. To be able to make this pressure on the exact spot requires a knowledge of the distribution of the main arteries of the body. Where this is wanting, the nurse may apply a roller bandage as tightly as possible around the limb above the wound; this pressure must not be kept up very long, as mortification may be produced by it.

3. The application of cold. This plan answers best when the bleeding is from several points scattered over a large surface; it is conveniently applied by letting cold water drip from a sponge on to the bleeding surface, or by the application of ice.

The part from which the blood comes should be raised above the rest of the body, and if the patient become faint he should not be roused immediately, since faintness acts as nature's remedy by lessening the force and activity of the flow of blood.

Arterial and venous hemorrhage.—Blood from the arteries is of a bright red color, and bursts out in spurts; while venous blood is purplish-red, and flows in a steady stream.

Rupture of varicose vein.—One common source of sudden bleeding is that which proceeds from the rupture of a varicose vein in the leg. The treatment in this case will consist in laying the patient down, raising the limb,

and applying steady pressure by a pad and bandage to the bleeding point.

Bleeding from the nose.—Epistaxis, or bleeding from the nose, is seldom serious, and may generally be controlled by the application of cold water. The patient should be kept upright, with his head thrown back and his hands raised above his head, with a sponge or some cotton-wool over his nose to receive the blood, but should on no account be allowed to stand with his head bent down over a basin, which encourages the bleeding.

Internal hemorrhage.—In addition to hemorrhage from external wounds, blood may also come from the interior of the body, and a nurse is sometimes required to supply information as to the character of this blood, from which the physician may judge of its origin.

Hæmoptysis, or spitting of blood. Blood from the lungs is generally coughed up, is frothy, mixed with mucus, in small quantity, and of a bright red color.

Hæmatemesis, or vomiting of blood. Blood from the stomach is vomited up, mixed with particles of food, in large quantity, and dark red or even black in color.

Blood from the back of the throat, gums, and mouth generally is of a red color, usually mixed with saliva, and is neither coughed nor vomited up unless previously swallowed.

Foreign substances, as logwood, brick-dust, port-wine, and other things, are often purposely mixed with the saliva by hysterical patients, who not unfrequently also pick their gums, bite their lips, or suck at the socket of a tooth until it bleed, in order to create sympathy.

In the case of female patients, bleeding from the womb

at other than the menstrual periods should always be at once reported to the physician.

The quantity of blood lost by a patient should always be carefully noted.

INSENSIBLE PATIENTS.

No violent measures should be used to arouse a patient who is insensible. Lay him in bed, loosen any bands, and let him have a free access of air.

Notice whether the breathing is quiet or noisy, regular or irregular, whether there are any convulsive movements of the limbs, whether the urine or feces be passed involuntarily, whether the pupils of both eyes are alike, or larger or smaller than natural, whether the patient will bear to have his eyes touched, and whether he can be aroused at all.

In all cases of apparent insensibility, the nurse should be careful to say nothing about the patient within his hearing. Though he can neither speak nor move, he may yet be perfectly conscious of what is passing round him.

DELIRIOUS PATIENTS.

Avoid any roughness in dealing with delirious patients, but always be firm, and never let them see that you are afraid of them or inclined to let them have their own way. Do not attempt to argue with them, or to contradict any of their assertions, but at the same time it is well to appear interested in their conversation. See that the lower parts of the windows are carefully fastened

down, and that there are no knives or dangerous weapons within reach of the patient. A nurse should never be left alone with a patient in violent delirium, unless immediate assistance is available at a moment's notice.

FAINTNESS.

In any case of faintness, the patient should be at once placed in a recumbent position, all tight clothing about the neck and chest be loosened, and a supply of fresh cold water secured. If there be only slight faintness, it may be all that is necessary to place the patient in a cold draught of air. Where there is complete loss of consciousness, water dashed on the face or chest, or applied by means of a wet towel, striking the palms of the hands and rubbing them rapidly, are good means of restoration. A plate may be dipped in hot water and placed over the stomach. Smelling salts, or any preparation of ammonia, should not be used too persistently, as they are liable to injure the lining membrane of the respiratory passages.

BURNS.

First treatment of burns.—If a person has been badly burnt, as by the clothes taking fire, the greatest care must be taken in their removal not to remove also some portion of the skin or flesh to which they will adhere. This may be avoided by making the clothes quite wet. It will be also necessary to cut the clothing more or less in removing it. The first thing to be done in the treatment of burns, whether superficial or deep, whether extending

over a large or small surface, is to exclude atmospheric air. This may be done by keeping the part wrapped up in cloths saturated with sweet oil; or a thick layer of flour may be placed over the burnt surface, and then covered with cotton. Carron oil, which is a mixture of equal parts of linseed oil and lime-water, is one of the best remedies for a burn.

STINGS AND BITES.

Stings of bees, wasps, mosquitoes.—Stings of bees, wasps, etc., may become dangerous, in case of numerous bites, as from a swarm of bees. Apply cooling lotions, or a cold poultice, or rub the parts with olive-oil. Ammonia-water is useful in allaying the irritation from mosquito-bites.

Bites from a mad dog or snake.—A wound inflicted by a dog suspected of madness, or by poisonous reptiles, should be washed by holding it under a stream of water for a few seconds, where this can be done without delay, after which the attempt must be made to remove the poison by suction. If water be not close at hand, apply the lips at once and suck out the poison. After this the wound must be deeply burnt with a hot iron, as a red-hot poker, until the surface is charred and dry. Or, if this cannot be done immediately, the bitten part should be cut out, the excision extending some distance into the healthy tissue. The burning is the surest remedy, and it is even considered necessary where the knife has been previously used. A string tied tightly around the limb may help to prevent the absorption of the poison.

There is no case where immediate action is more imperative. The question of life or death is decided in a few minutes. It is therefore necessary that the non-professional person know what to do, for if there be any delay and the poison becomes absorbed, the greatest medical science is at present unable to avert the fatal consequences.

FOREIGN BODIES.

When anything has lodged in the throat causing choking or suffocation, a smart blow on the back between the shoulders will in many cases send the substance out of the mouth. Should this fail, hold up the body by the feet (in the case of a child), and let another person strike between the shoulders with the open hand. This process should only last for a moment. Look in the throat and see if the substance can be reached; seize hold of it with the thumb and finger, or a pair of blunt-pointed scissors, and pull it out.

If there is only a small substance in the throat, causing a troublesome tickling cough, give bread, followed by a drink of water, and if this is not sufficient, give a little mustard and warm water as an emetic, and after vomiting there will probably be no further trouble.

In the nose.—When any small article, as peas, beans, pebbles, etc., have been pushed into the nose, they may often be removed by snuff, or any other substance which will produce sneezing, being introduced into the opposite nostril, or by the use of a pair of forceps or blunt-pointed scissors, care being taken not to push the substance back

into the throat. Peas and beans are the more dangerous, as they increase in size by the absorption of moisture.

In the ear.—Insects in the ear are removed by plugging the external opening with a piece of cotton saturated with a solution of salt or vinegar, so as to prevent the admission of air. Then let the patient lie on the affected side, and press the hand firmly on the ear. After a few minutes the insect may be found imbedded in the cotton. Or, lay the patient on the opposite side, and fill the ear with oil.

A small stream of water from a syringe will often remove small bodies or sand. If any substance can be readily seized with the forceps they may be used for this purpose; but very little force must be used or the substance will be pushed still further in, rupturing the drum of the ear, and permanent deafness be the result.

In the eye.—For the removal of dirt, sand, etc., from the eye, it will often suffice to lift the upper lid away from the eye-ball by taking hold of the lashes, drawing it down over the lower lid, and allowing it to slide slowly back. Then wipe the edges with a handkerchief to remove the foreign body from the lashes. Or, take something hard, like a knitting-needle or pencil, and press it across the outside of the upper lid, then take hold of the lashes and make the lid turn over the pencil, and the substance will generally be seen sticking to the delicate membrane which lines the lids, when it can be gently washed or rubbed off.

SUNSTROKE.

This is a sudden prostration due to long exposure to

great heat. The same effect is produced by the heat of the sun, and by prolonged confinement in the heated atmosphere of a building. Persons of intemperate habits, or those who are debilitated, or much fatigued or exhausted, are most liable to the attack. It begins with pain in the head or dizziness, the limbs become weak and refuse to give support, and loss of consciousness quickly follows. The head is very hot, the face red and swollen, the breathing labored and snoring, and the extremities cold.

The patient should be placed in a cool room, or in a cool, shady place, the head should be elevated, the cloth ing loosened, cloths wet in ice-water applied to the head, and mustard or turpentine to the soles of the feet and calves of the leg. As soon as the patient can swallow, a little stimulant may be given, and further treatment left till the arrival of the physician.

CONVULSIONS.

The treatment of convulsions in children is given elsewhere.

In other cases, it is often difficult to distinguish between a convulsive fit which is the result of epilepsy and that caused by hysteria.

The following are the main points on which it is desirable that the nurse be able to give exact information:

1. What is the condition of the patient before the fit?
2. Does the patient cry out? E. Once. H. Repeatedly

3. Does the patient injure herself by biting the tongue, falling heavily, or striking the furniture?	E. Frequently H. Rarely.
4. How long does the fit last?	
5. Will the patient bear having the eyes touched?	E. Always. H. Rarely.
6. Does the patient have involuntary evacuations from the bowels or bladder during the fit? *	E. Frequently. H. Seldom.
7. What is the state of the patient after the fit?	E. Stupid, dull headache. H. Drowsy.
8. Are there any worms in the motions?	E. Sometimes. H. Rarely.

The treatment to be adopted is to lay the patient on the bed or floor, loosen the clothing about the neck and chest; if the patient be in the habit of biting the tongue, insert, if possible, a piece of wood between the teeth, or a folded towel, and clear away the frothy discharge from the mouth. In an hysterical attack, strike the face and chest with a towel wet with ice-water.

POISONS.

General rule.—As a general rule in cases of poisoning the patient should be made to vomit as soon as possible. Give at once a teaspoonful of mustard in a tumbler of warm water, or two teaspoonfuls of powdered alum in the same way.

Poisoning from acids.—When poisoned by acids give

* While coming out of the fit the hysterical patient will frequently pass a large amount of urine.

alkalies, as a solution of carbonate of soda in water, or lime water ; magnesia or chalk may be given, also strong soap-suds with plenty of water afterwards.

From alkalies.—When the alkalies, as caustic potash, soda or ammonia, have been taken by mistake, acids should be given, vinegar and water, lemons, oranges; give later olive oil.

Opium.—The first thing of importance in the treatment of poisoning from opium, is to give an emetic; after vomiting give strong coffee, and, if possible, do not let the person sleep. Strike the soles of the feet, walk him about, do anything to arouse him.

Arsenic, copper, &c.—In poisoning from arsenic, copper, and other metallic substances, give milk and raw eggs, afterwards mucilaginous drinks, as flaxseed tea.

CHAPTER X.

MONTHLY NURSING.

PREPARATIONS of the room and of the patient.—As soon as labor has commenced there are certain general preparations of the room and of the patient, to which the nurse must give her attention.

Room.—The room should be light, warm, and well ventilated, and, in private nursing, as retired as possible. But few persons should be admitted to the room, and only those whose presence is a comfort to the patient. Friends who cannot control their agitation ought not to be permitted to add to the distress of the patient. As a rule, it is desirable to have no more than one or two persons besides the nurse and physician in the room.

Things needed.—The nurse should have ready some sweet oil, or other mild emollient, for the physician's use, in examining the patient, also water, soap and towels. She must see that a supply of hot and cold water be ready when required. Ice may be demanded in case of hemorrhage, and should always be where it can be quickly obtained. The following articles will also be needed: scissors, and narrow silk or linen tape, for tying and cutting the cord; a blanket for receiving the child as soon as it is separated from the mother; a small bath-tub for bathing the child; a clean and soft sponge; white

castile soap ; a soft towel ; some pieces of old linen for dressing the navel ; a flannel bandage ; diapers ; a flannel petticoat ; a simple muslin dress, and a blanket to wrap about the child when dressed. The garments may be fastened by means of tapes, or a needle and thread may be found convenient for the flannel bandage, and the petticoat band. A change of linen for the mother, a bandage and shield pins, a clean sheet and draw sheet will be needed after the termination of labor.

Bed.—It is important that the bed for confinement be not too low, and that the mattress be hard and not very yielding. The mattress must be protected with the rubber cloth and draw sheet, according to directions which have already been given. A small quilt, or piece of a quilt, may well be used over the rubber cloth, and under the draw sheet ; this will help to absorb some of the fluids, and thus prevent their spreading. It is much the best way to have a clean bed to which the patient can be removed after the termination of labor, but this is often not practicable. The bed should not be against the wall, as it is desirable that the nurse be able to approach both sides of it.

During labor the patient will need some support for the feet and hands. The foot-board of the bed may answer for the feet, or a box or stool may be placed between the foot-board and the feet of the patient. A sheet fastened to the foot of the bed is generally found to be a convenient support for the hands, and furnishes something upon which she can draw during the latter part of labor.

Precaution.—During the progress of the labor the

nurse must take care that the bed-clothing get as little soiled as possible; also, in private nursing, the carpet may be spared any injury by spreading a rug over it on the right side of the bed. Under the bed, or near at hand, should be a vessel for receiving the after-birth.

Preparation of patient.—In preparing the patient for labor, the hair must be brushed, and is most conveniently arranged in two braids. The nurse should always give a simple enema even if the bowels have been moved within a few hours. In most cases the patient has a frequent desire to urinate, but where this is wanting she should be encouraged to make the attempt from time to time in the early part of labor. While the pains are still light, nourishment should be taken to keep up the strength. Soup and beef-tea are easily digested, and can generally be taken. Stimulants should be avoided.

Pains.—There are often slight pains occurring from time to time for several weeks before labor really begins. In the first stage of labor the pains are usually short, with long intervals between them. They are often accompanied with nervous shiverings and tremors. The pains are due to the uterine contractions, and the hand placed over the abdomen will feel the uterine walls grow firm beneath it. These pains have been called preparative, and they effect the dilation of the mouth of the uterus. They last for a longer time usually in the woman who has never before borne children.

The patient may at this time be dressed for the bed, but over the night-dress she may have on a warm wrapper and whatever else is necessary, so that she may walk

about sometimes between the pains if she feels so inclined. By this means the progress of the labor is slightly furthered, and the change of position and movement help to relieve the weariness of the patient. In the case of a woman who has already borne children, and especially if previous labors have been short, it may be advisable that she go to bed in the early stages of labor.

Rupture of the membranes.—It is also well in the case of a first labor to prepare the mind of the patient for the rupturing of the bag of waters and the escape of the fluid. Much soiling of the bed may be avoided by placing a large sponge or some old linen between the thighs and somewhat under the hips, to absorb the discharges.

Second stage of labor.—The pains of the second stage of labor are called expulsive. The mouth of the uterus is now fully dilated, the bag of waters is usually broken before this stage or in the early part of it, and the force of the uterine contractions is expended in pushing the child down out of the uterus and through the vagina. The pains are longer and more severe than the preparatory ones, and the interval between them gradually becomes shorter. Before this stage the patient should not be allowed to waste her strength in any bearing-down efforts, but now as the child is descending she can aid the contractions by bearing down with each pain, while she draws upon the sheet previously fastened to the foot of the bed. The patient will need to be encouraged to bear the pains bravely, and to help herself as much as possible, and not retard the progress of the labor by tossing about, or by crying out with the severity of her sufferings.

The pressure upon the rectum will often give the feel-

ing of a desire to empty the bowels, but the nurse must never allow her patient to get out of bed at this stage.

How to relieve the pains in the back.—The pains, both of the first and second stages of labor, are often accompanied by most distressing pains in the back. These may be much relieved by supporting the back with the hand at the time of the pains, or a hard pillow may be placed under the lower part of the back; or a towel may be passed under the loins and the ends held by two persons, one on each side of the bed, and by this the patient can be slightly raised, enough to give support to the back during the pains. The patient is often troubled by cramps in the thighs and legs, which are relieved by rubbing.

As soon as the head of the child begins to press upon the outside parts, the patient must desist from all her efforts at straining, as it is desirable that these parts be gradually stretched, to avoid, if possible, any rupture.

What to do after the head is born.—After the head is born, the nurse places her hand firmly over the uterus, and at the time of the next pain presses down from above while the body of the child is being expelled. This pressure favors the after contraction of the uterus and helps to prevent hemorrhage. There is usually a moment of rest after the head is born before the body is expelled. The nurse should have in the pocket of her apron, or close at hand, a pair of blunt-pointed scissors, and two pieces of cord, each about half a yard long, ready for use as they are required. The blanket to receive the child should also be ready.

What to do after the birth of the child.—After the cord has been tied, she will take the child from the physician

and lay it aside, well wrapped up, or give it into the care of some other person who may be present. There will usually be some large clots in the bed which are discharged after the child. These the nurse now removes, putting them in the vessel which is to receive the after-birth. Sometimes a good deal of liquid comes away at the same time. As much as can be is now wiped up to prevent its spreading, but the patient is not cleansed until after the after-birth has come away. This sometimes follows immediately after the child, but often not for half an hour or longer. During this time the physician gives his attention to the mother, and the nurse can take the opportunity to wash the child. She has previously got everything ready except the water, so that no longer time than necessary be taken now. By the time this is accomplished the mother will generally require the care of the nurse.

Care of the mother.—The soiled things must be removed from the bed; a clean and dry part of the draw-sheet which is already on the bed can be put under the hips for a moment while the nurse bathes the parts with warm water, and dries them carefully with a soft towel. No more washing of the patient than is really necessary should be done at this time. The soiled clothing must be removed. But little moving of the patient should be done, and she must not be allowed to move or help herself in the least, or hemorrhage will be liable to occur. The bandage of the patient is put on as soon as possible, and pinned snugly so as to give support to the relaxed abdominal walls. A folded towel is placed so as to receive the discharges, and pinned to the bandage behind

and in front. If the patient is to be transferred to a clean bed, two persons will be required, one to lift from the shoulders, the other to lift the thighs and hips. If she is to remain in the same bed, clean, dry, and warm things must be substituted for the soiled ones.

Look out for signs of hemorrhage.—The patient should now be left to sleep. No one should be in the room but the nurse. All talking must be avoided. The nurse must, however, examine the patient from time to time, to see that she is not flowing too much. She should also notice whether the face of the patient becomes pallid, and the pulse weak. She can do this quietly without disturbing the patient. If the face and lips are pale and the pulse feeble, and the patient feels faint, though there are no signs of external hemorrhage, the head should be lowered and the hips slightly raised. The nurse must feel over the abdomen, pressing down deeply, so as to ascertain if the uterus has relaxed. In which case the bandage must be unpinned, and firm, circular rubbing over the uterus continued until it contracts down into a firm, hard ball, felt just above the symphysis pubis.

Question of stimulants in faintness.—There will sometimes be the above signs of hemorrhage, pallor and faintness, and no cause be found for it. The nurse can then only lower the head, and in the absence of the physician give a little stimulant cautiously while awaiting his arrival. He should be sent for at once, and, if near at hand, it will not be necessary for the nurse to give the stimulant, for it is only in an extreme case that stimulants should be given to a woman who has just been confined, and then they should be given in moderate doses,—as a

teaspoonful of brandy,—or they will be likely to prove a dangerous remedy. Nature demands that the woman rest after labor. The circulation is slackened, and the nutritive processes for the time diminished; if now the circulation be excited by stimulants, there is reason to fear the setting in of fever. So when stimulants are given it is only when the circulation becomes so feeble that the woman is fainting, and we only want to give enough to prevent it. Sometimes there is a feeling of faintness from exhaustion from want of food, and it is relieved by milk. The latter is always a safe remedy.

What can the nurse do if the physician has not arrived?—It may sometimes happen that the nurse will find herself in sole charge of the patient at the time of the birth of the child. The child sometimes arrives sooner than it is anticipated, or the physician is by accident detained, and no other can be readily procured, which not infrequently happens in the country. We will, therefore, give some directions which may help the nurse at this crisis. We would, however, say here that no nurse should voluntarily undertake the entire charge of a midwifery patient. Certainly, no intelligent nurse who has a knowledge of some of the numerous accidents which are liable to occur would be willing to assume such a responsibility.

If, during labor, the parts about the vulva are rigid, hot and dry, they should be thoroughly lubricated with oil or vaseline.

Care about the cord.—As soon as the head is born it is important to see whether the cord be wound around the neck of the child. If it encircle the neck but once, it may be drawn slightly, so as to loosen it enough to

pass it over the head. If encircling the head more than once, the loosest coil may generally be loosened a little more, so that it will pass over the head, after which the others will follow easily. If this cannot be done, the coils may be loosened enough to prevent strangulation of the child, and their removal left till after the expulsion of the body.

As soon as the head is born an assistant should place her hand on the abdomen, over the uterus, and make firm pressure downwards at the time of the next pain, which usually comes in a minute or two after the head is born. This pressure, with gentle manipulation of the uterus, is continued by the assistant until after the expulsion of the after-birth.

What to do if the body is delayed.—The nurse should never draw upon the head, but if the pressure and manipulation does not expel the body, after waiting a few minutes, she may introduce into the vagina the first finger of the right hand, pass it along the back of the child, hook it under the arm, then draw gently but firmly until the shoulder passes over the perineum. The rest of the body will immediately follow.

The child should now be laid near enough to the mother to prevent any drawing on the cord, but at the same time in such a position that it shall not be choked by the fluids which have escaped or are escaping from the vulva. The pulse in the cord soon becomes irregular and finally ceases. It should then be tied in two places.

Tying of the cord.—The knot is the more firm if, in making the first tie, the end makes two turns under the part which is around the cord; for the second tie only one

turn is necessary. It should be tied firmly in two places, about an inch apart, and cut between them, about four or five inches from the child's abdomen. If the cord be thick and strong it should be tied as tightly as possible, but if it be slender and weak, care must be taken not to tie it so tight as to cut it. The cord is left thus long at first that there may be room for other ligatures in case of hemorrhage, and to guard against any part of the intestine of the child being included in the ligature.

Care of the child.—If the child breathes with difficulty the nurse should introduce the little finger into the mouth, to remove any mucus which may be present. Slapping the child on the back of the chest will help to clear the air passages. Shortly after the cord has been tied it should be examined to see that there is no hemorrhage from it.

The child, wrapped in warm blankets, may now be laid aside or delivered into the hands of an assistant, while the attention is given more particularly to the mother. It should not, however, be left long without another examination.

Gentle manipulation of the uterus through the abdominal walls, and downward pressure at the time of a pain will facilitate the separation of the after-birth from the uterus, and its expulsion from the uterine cavity. The nurse should in no case draw upon the cord.

The after-birth.—The after-birth is sometimes expelled from the uterus but not from the vagina. The uterus may then be felt like a hard ball through the abdominal wall. When this is the case the after-birth may be removed by giving the cord one or two turns over the

fingers so that it may be firmly grasped, and drawing it very slightly, while the other hand, introduced into the vagina, grasps the after-birth itself, and gently removes it. If it does not come away readily, no force should be used, as it is probably not entirely separated from the uterine wall. Nothing further must be done at this time than to keep up the external manipulation, unless there be excessive hemorrhage.

Hemorrhage, how to arrest it.—In case of violent hemorrhage, and the after-birth not yet removed, and no physician be present, the nurse, holding the cord firmly in one hand, must introduce the other into the vagina, follow up the cord and the after-birth, feel all around the latter until she comes to the place where it is attached; she must then separate it in such a way as to leave no portion of the after-birth attached to the uterus. After the after-birth has been expelled from the vagina, several turns of it should be made so as to twist slightly the membranes, as thus they are more likely to come away entire.

If, after the delivery of the after-birth there is excessive hemorrhage, it may usually be controlled in the following manner: Introduce several small pieces of ice into the vagina; wet the end of a towel in ice-water and quickly strike the abdomen of the patient; remove the pillows from under the head; the hips may even be slightly raised by a small hard pillow. Continue rubbing the uterus externally; this should be done until it is felt as a firm, hard ball above the symphysis pubis. The hand should remain over the uterus even a little longer,

to see that it remains small, or, in case of relaxation and enlargement, to manipulate as before.

The soiled quilt may now be removed from under the patient, a clean and dry one substituted, and the bandage put on and pinned quite tightly. She may then be left to rest for half an hour while the child is being washed and dressed. During this time she should be perfectly quiet, and not be allowed to talk.

The child's bath.—The water for the child's bath should be of a temperature of about 98°. Not using a thermometer, the nurse must be careful to see that it is neither too hot nor too cold.

The cord is now re-examined and again tied, this time about one and a half inches from the abdomen.

If there is much cheesy matter on the child it may be removed the more easily if it is first rubbed with a little sweet oil. The child may be wrapped around with a warm flannel before putting it in the bath, and still wrapped in this flannel, the left hand under the head, the right under the hips, let it be gradually lowered into the water. A clean soft sponge, and white castile soap should be used for cleansing the child. It should not remain in the bath over five minutes, and when taken out must be wrapped in a warm blanket and gently dried. Care should be taken not to chill the child by exposure. The nurse will at this time see if there are any deformities, especially if the anus and mouth of the urethra are open.

To dress the navel.—To dress the cord, take a piece of soft linen three or four inches in diameter, and cut a hole in the centre about half an inch in diameter, then dip it

in oil, put the cord through the hole, fold the linen over the cord, and lay the cord on the left of the median line. A small compress made of two or three folds of soft linen may then be laid over the whole, and the bandage put on, which will keep them in place. Then may follow the other garments of the child, which should be light, soft and warm.

The child should be upon the side rather than upon the back, and may be changed occasionally from one side to the other.

After-care of the child.—A little sweetened water may now be given the child if it is uneasy, and the mother be allowed a longer rest before nursing it.

Nursing.—Nothing further should be given the child till after the mother has had the first sleep, usually five or six hours after labor, when it may be put to the breast. The nipple may be moistened with a little sweetened water, and the child will the more readily take hold of it. It is important that the child have the first milk, as it acts as a mild cathartic, freeing the intestine from the meconium, the dark substance which passes from the newly-born infant, and which has collected in the bowel in the last few weeks before birth. After this the child should be put to the breast regularly, once in about two hours. If it be delicate and takes but a small amount of nourishment, it may be nursed every hour and a half, while on the other hand, if it be well and hearty, once in three hours is often enough for it to nurse in the night, or when it is sleeping.

If the mother is in good condition, nothing further will be required by the child until the appearance of the

teeth. Some nurses and some mothers will be anxious that the child have an early dose of oil, and others will suggest various other doses with which they would combat or ward off an imaginary evil. But all these things are not simply useless, they are harmful, and tend to disorder the digestion.

The child should be put regularly to the breast even though but little milk be secreted; the glands are by this means stimulated to further secretion. If the appetite of the child seems not to be satisfied with what it obtains from the mother, after each nursing it may be fed with a little milk and water, slightly sweetened. A preparation of one part of milk to two of water is very suitable for the new-born infant. This feeding will not usually be necessary for a longer time than one or two days.

The healthy child may be bathed daily, immersing the body in warm water. Two minutes is long enough for it to remain in the water. Care must be taken to cleanse the child thoroughly at the time of the bath, and to dry it well afterwards. Where this is carefully done all chafing may usually be avoided, and no occasion offered for the use of the powder in which so many nurses delight.

Powder often injurious.—Powder, as it is often used, is injurious to the delicate skin of the child. The skin is provided with pores which Nature intended should be kept open. The æration of the blood takes place through the skin as well as through the lungs, when the pores are not obstructed by powder or dirt. If the surfaces become chafed, in spite of all the care which has been used, they may be dusted with a little powder to prevent any friction, or, better still, a piece of soft linen smeared

with mutton-tallow may be laid against them. Bathing with very diluted starch water is also useful. Equal care must be taken in cleansing the child after the diapers have been soiled. Diapers which the child has wet should not be dried for use a second time. The fresh diapers should be previously warmed before putting them on a young child. Several may be kept ready for use wrapped around a bottle filled with hot water, where there is no other means of warming them.

For the first five or six days the navel must be dressed as at first, or until the cord falls off, which is about this time. No force must be used to remove it, but it must be left to come away of itself. For a few days after it has fallen off a little piece of oiled linen and small compress may be laid over the navel.

Care of the mouth.—The mouth of the child should be washed occasionally during the day with a little piece of soft linen and cool water. If the tongue becomes white or the mouth at all sore, it should be washed after each nursing. The child should not be allowed to suck cloths wet with sweetened water, or, if fed from the bottle, it should be taken away after the child has finished, and not be allowed to remain in the mouth.

The eyes.—If there be any discharge from the eyes, they must be carefully washed with a bit of soft linen. The nurse should bear in mind that this affection of the eyes is sometimes contagious, and sometimes becomes so serious that the eye-sight is lost. If only one eye is affected, she must be careful not to use the same water or cloth in washing the other eye. She must also take care not to convey any infection to her own eyes.

The bowels.—The bowels will move generally once, twice, or even three times a day. If constipated, a small suppository of soap introduced into the rectum will usually produce a movement; if not, the nurse may give an enema of warm water with a little castile soap. This is better than to run the risk of disturbing the digestion by giving oil.

Care of the feeble child.—The directions which have thus far been given have supposed the child to be born strong and well; but as it often happens that the reverse is the case, the nurse must be prepared to care for the weak and feeble child whose hold upon life is as yet very slender. If the child be weak, whether it be from premature birth, or other cause, it should be kept wrapped in cotton wool for the first few days of its existence, and hot bottles used as necessary to keep it warm. It will take but little nourishment at a time, and so must be fed oftener than the healthy child. A drop or two of brandy, or other stimulant, may be given with the food, but this will be prescribed by the physician, if necessary. The child may be of full term, large, and well developed, and, because of some pressure on the cord during labor, may, when born, be apparently dead. If the nurse be alone when such a child is born, her first efforts are to get it to breathe. She should first clear the mouth and throat of any mucus; then cold water may be dashed upon the face and chest, while the body is immersed in quite warm water. It may be laid upon its back and the arms lifted slowly up over the head, and back again to the sides, pressing firmly against the sides of the chest for a moment, the object being to expand the chest, as in the act

of inspiration. The nurse may fill her own lungs with pure air, and quickly blow into the mouth of the child, while the arms are raised and the chest expanded. When the child once begins to cry the lungs fill with air, and the threatened danger is averted.

In any case the new-born child must not be left long without looking to see that it is breathing rightly, but, if feeble, it must be watched still more carefully.

To whom shall the nurse give her first attention?—If the nurse chance to be alone, she may sometimes be at a loss to know to whom she must first give her attention after the birth of the child. If the child be breathing well, and the mother be having considerable hemorrhage, there can be no doubt that the latter needs her principal attention; but, on the other hand, the child may be feeble, and require her first attention, while the mother may not be in any danger; but again, both mother and child may seem to have equal claims upon her, and then she must do the best she can for each.

Diet of the mother.—For the first three or four days the mother is fed upon very light diet. As soon as she has had her first sleep she will be ready to take nourishment, which may consist of milk, gruel, a little toast and tea, or other like food. She will take but little food at any one time, and will require to be fed as often as every two or three hours. This should be brought to her at regular intervals without previously asking if she wishes it. If her wishes are consulted, she might decline taking food, but she will not usually refuse it when brought to her. All alcoholic stimulants should be avoided, as well as strong coffee and tea. This kind of diet is kept up

for one or two days; after that, beef-tea or chicken broth may be added, or even a little meat. In a day or two she may take cooked fruit, as baked apples, and even some fruits, as peaches and grapes, may be eaten without cooking. After the first nine days, if doing well, the patient can take almost anything she would like, acid fruits, vinegar, pickles, and indigestible food being still withheld.

The next day after confinement the nurse will give a vaginal injection of warm water containing a little carbolic acid. This should be done twice a day for about ten days. If there is any odor to the discharge the injections should be continued for a longer time. The discharge, at first consisting of blood and mucus and some materials which are thrown off from the uterus, because no longer of use, continues for three or four weeks usually, and sometimes longer.

Use of catheter.—If the patient does not pass urine within twelve hours after labor, the catheter will require to be used for a few times. The bladder should be emptied twice during twenty-four hours. Before using the catheter the nurse will do well to try placing over the bladder a sponge wrung out of water as hot as the patient can bear it, also to squeeze a sponge wet in quite warm water over the parts, so that a small stream of water is made to run over the mouth of the urethra. This will, in many cases, enable the patient to pass the water herself. It is well to keep the catheter in a bowl of disinfectant fluid during the intervals of its use. See page 22.

The bowels.—The bowels may move of themselves after

two or three days, but usually not without an enema. This should be given after three days, and repeated every alternate day as long as the patient remains in bed. During the first nine days the patient must not sit up to empty the bladder or the bowels.

If there has been a rupture of the perineum, and subsequent operation, it may be desirable that the bowels should not move for a week. In such a case the physician in charge will give the nurse directions when to give the enema.

Care of the breasts.—The nurse must see that the breasts are kept warm, and especially are not exposed to the air while the child is nursing. After nursing a cloth must be put over the breasts to prevent any milk which may escape from soiling the clothing. If it flows freely from the breasts a glass may be used to receive it.

The breasts sometimes become quite full and hard, making it difficult for the child to nurse, while they contain much more milk than the child can take. Here the breasts should be emptied, and the profuse secretion of milk slightly checked by bandaging the breasts between the times of nursing. A little tow may be used to fill up the space between the breasts, so as to make the pressure even, and then a wide, straight bandage pinned snugly over them. But this engorgement and all further trouble with the breasts may be avoided by putting on the bandage in season before they become full. The breast-pump may be required to empty the breasts if they are allowed to become engorged.

Do not rub the breasts.—The less handling the breasts

receive the better. The nurse should never rub them unless so directed by the physician.

The nurse is never called upon to decide whether the mother should or should not nurse her child; but where, for any reason, she is unable to do it, the breasts should be firmly bandaged the next day after confinement, so that the milk shall be kept from coming in. They should be kept thus firmly bandaged for a week.

Care of the nipples.—The nipples should be washed in cold water after each nursing of the child. If cracked, after washing and drying, they should be painted with collodion, or the compound tincture of benzoin, or anything else which the physician may prescribe. If care be taken with the nipples from the first, these troublesome fissures may be avoided, but once existing, they are very difficult to heal. If nursing becomes a painful process to the mother because of the soreness of the nipples, they should be protected by a rubber shield. If there is much milk in the breasts they should be supported, as by a piece of roller bandage which passes underneath the breast and over the opposite shoulder, or by a wide straight bandage around the chest, pinned tight enough that the patient feels the support.

The child should be put to both breasts at the same meal; they may be thus kept from becoming engorged.

Bathing of the mother.—Care must be taken in bathing the patient to expose only a small surface at a time, and to quickly sponge and dry it, using a good deal of friction to prevent all possibility of taking cold. The room should be quite warm during the bath; it is well to have

the temperature as high as 75° F. As a rule once in two days is often enough for the entire bath, but the hands and face may be washed twice daily, or as often as necessary, and the parts about the vulva cleansed carefully morning and night with carbolized water. As long as the patient is in bed she will usually experience great comfort from rubbing. It is especially important that the entire body be well rubbed at night. A good night's rest is often thus secured.

If the patient is doing well she may sit up for half an hour on the tenth day; afterwards this time is gradually increased according to her strength. Care must be taken that she does not feel any chill when she first leaves the bed, also when she first goes out, which, under the most favorable circumstances may be about the third week.

Importance of ventilation.—The observations which have been made on ventilation should be carefully followed by the monthly nurse. Pure air is never more necessary than in a case of this kind. It is important both for mother and child. All soiled clothing from the bed, mother and child should be taken at once from the room. While a sunny room is desirable, the light must be modified by curtains for the sensitive eyes of the newborn child.

Artificial feeding of the child.—If the mother does not nurse the child it may be fed with cow's milk, using for the first month one part of milk to two of water, and about a half-teaspoonful of sugar to a half-tumbler of milk thus diluted. In the city many children will thrive well on condensed milk. One part of condensed milk to

ten of water is sufficiently strong for a child during the first month.

When a child is artificially fed the greatest care must be taken to keep all the utensils clean and sweet. The simplest kind of a nursing-bottle—a plain bottle with a rubber nipple—is the best. Anything more complicated is more difficult to keep clean. When the child is being fed the bottle should be held by the nurse, and not left in the mouth while she attends to other matters. The milk may flow too fast and cause strangulation, or the nipple is liable to fall out of the mouth, and the child go to sleep without having taken sufficient nourishment.

If the child does not have the first milk from the mother, which is laxative in character, and if the bowels do not move freely within twelve hours after birth, the nurse may give it a teaspoonful of sweet oil, or a third of a teaspoonful of aromatic syrup of rhubarb.

Stomach-ache.—To relieve the pains in the stomach and bowels which afflict many little babies in a greater or less degree, and which are generally due to flatulence, the nurse may give it a little anise or fennel-seed tea. The cries of a young child are not always indicative of suffering. The nurse will generally be able to distinguish the cries of pain from those of hunger.

Sleep.—During the first few weeks the healthy child does little but nurse and sleep. If it nurses the mother, if not carefully watched, it will contract the habit of falling asleep with the nipple in its mouth, and soon get in the way of going to sleep in no other way. It will always stop to rest after sucking a few times, but the little naps which are allowed it must be of short duration,

or it will prolong one meal until about the time for another. The child should be taught to sleep by taking it from the breast, after its hunger is satisfied, and laying it in the crib. The nurse should not accustom the child to being rocked in her arms or in a cradle.

CHAPTER XI.

NURSING OF SICK CHILDREN.

NECESSITY of habits of observation.—The habit of careful observation, so valuable in the nurse at all times, is especially necessary when she is called to the care of sick children. Older people can describe many of their symptoms, so as to guide the physician in their treatment, but the report of the nurse who has used her eyes to the best advantage is of the greatest assistance in the case of a sick child.

First signs of illness in a sick child.—The first manifestation of any derangement of health in the infant or young child is very apt to be restlessness at night. The countenance, ordinarily so calm and placid in sleep, may be seen to be disturbed; the contracted brow, and the occasional workings of the features, express discomfort; or, the child may toss and turn uneasily from side to side, and sometimes cry out as if in pain; or, after a period of uneasiness, it may waken with a scream, and lie awake for some time, and the nurse find difficulty in soothing it.

Again, it may be noticed that the child, which, when well, is in almost constant movement when awake, be-

comes more quiet, prefers to lie in the nurse's lap, or on the bed or couch, and takes little interest in the toys which usually give it delight.

What can be learned from the cries of a child.—Much can be learned from the cries of a young child. The baby cries when it is hungry, but these cries are preceded by premonitory grunts, turning of the head to the side, and workings of the open mouth as if in search of the breast, which failing to find, the cry is one of disappointment and grief, aggravated by the pangs of hunger. It is unlike the sharp and sudden cry of pain.

Pain, how manifested.—When in pain the features will be more or less contracted, and often the legs are alternately drawn up, and then suddenly straightened out, and held quite stiff for a minute. The cries continue until the pain is relieved. The pain sometimes seems to come on in paroxysms. The child will cry very hard for a few minutes, and then, after a short period of calm, will suddenly cry out as before.

When the nurse is convinced that the child is suffering pain, she should try to ascertain in which of the three great cavities of the body the pain is located—the abdomen, chest or head.

Pain in the bowels is accompanied by wriggling of the body, drawing up of the legs, clenching of the fists, and generally occurs before or after a movement.

In inflammation of the lungs or air passages, the cry is at the time of coughing, and for a little time after. In pleurisy, the child experiences sharp pain on coughing, or on any movement of the body.

With pain in the head, which comes from disease of the brain, the child gives a single sudden shriek.

Little children often suffer very severe pains from ear-ache, will cry loud and long, and cannot be comforted.*

There is also the irritable cry of general uneasiness, which may generally be quieted by soothing treatment.

Expression of the face.—The expression of the face varies somewhat in different diseases. In diseases of the stomach and bowels there is apt to be paleness and contraction about the mouth; the nostrils often dilate with each inspiration in diseases of the chest; in diseases of the brain the eyes and upper part of the face are more apt to be affected; but in severe pain in any locality the whole face is likely to express it by its contortions.

Posture, and movements.—The positions which the child seems naturally to take should be noticed, whether it lies on the side or on the back, whether it seems to prefer to have the head elevated, whether it keeps the head quietly in one position, or turns it restlessly from side to side, or is inclined to burrow it in the pillow. The hand is frequently carried to the head in head-ache or ear-ache, and to the mouth when the teeth are giving pain.

Skin.—The temperature and color of the skin, its dryness or moisture, its smoothness, or the presence of any roughness or swelling, are points which may indicate health or disease.

Advantages of a warm bath.—When a child begins to

* Apply hot flannel to relieve the ear-ache of children. Do not use poultices. Avoid putting anything in the ear except by the advice of the physician.

be fretful and uneasy, and to manifest some of the first signs of disturbance of the health, there are many advantages to be gained from putting it at once in a warm bath. The temperature of the body is very apt to be elevated from a slight cause, and the child seems hot and feverish, and serious illness is apprehended. The change which the warm bath will produce in these symptoms is often very great. It lowers the temperature, thus quieting the sensitive nerves of the skin; it relieves the pains of colic by relaxing muscular spasm, and the child falls into a calm and restful sleep, and often when it wakens all uncomfortable sensations will have vanished. Again, if the child has contracted any of the eruptive diseases to which young children are liable, it will generally be made manifest, as the heat and moisture tend to bring out the rash.

Bath, how given.—The water should be warm enough to feel comfortable to the child. After two or three minutes a little more hot water may be added. The bath should be given in a warm room, better before an open fire in cool weather, all possible exposure from draft or other source being guarded against. The child may remain in the bath about five minutes, and then be taken out and wrapped in a warm blanket. Hold it in this for a few minutes, while the blanket absorbs some of the moisture, and then substitute for the damp blanket a warm and dry one. But little further drying will be necessary, and the night-gown, previously warmed, can be put on, and the child will probably now enjoy a refreshing sleep.

The physician will sometimes order the cold bath

when the fever is high. By this means the temperature of the body may be brought down several degrees. Unless the nurse has received special orders about the time of the bath, she should not keep the child in the water over five minutes. The attempt should not be made to bring the temperature of the body down to normal, because it will still continue to fall after coming out of the bath, and if this decrease should go on after the normal standard has been reached, there would be great danger of collapse—by which we mean the nervous system becomes so weakened by the change from a high temperature to one below normal, that reaction cannot be established. The temperature continues to fall, and death is the result.

Some points in regard to fever.—When the child is suffering from fever it derives the greatest comfort from the warm bath ; sponging of the body in tepid water is also beneficial, but the immersion generally gives the most relief. This may be repeated several times a day when the skin becomes very hot and dry, and the child may be kept wrapped in blankets instead of dressing it, or, at most, only a single garment may be put on. Dressing is a process which children are not apt to enjoy under any circumstances, but which becomes a great trial if persisted in when they feel weak and fretful from sickness.

When the child is hot and feverish it will will be very thirsty, and though it should not ask for water, the nurse should give it a little at a time and frequently, as a teaspoonful every ten or fifteen minutes if it takes it eagerly. She may also give it now and then a bit of

ice. The room should be well aired, and not too warm. The diet should be light, no solid food being given, except with the consent of the physician. A small quantity taken frequently is much better than a larger amount at longer intervals, for the digestive powers are weakened, and if too much work is put upon them, alarming symptoms will often manifest themseives. There is nothing better than milk to give sick children, and they are almost always fond of it, and may usually be allowed to satisfy themselves. Sometimes the nurse may notice that they drink it greedily, but vomit it almost immediately after. The thirst from which they are suffering makes them take it eagerly; less milk should then be given them, and it is also necessary to give it more diluted.* Bits of ice given frequently will relieve the thirst.

Eruptive diseases.—There are various eruptive diseases which usually attack infants and young children, and from some of which comparatively few children escape. These are measles, scarlet fever, chicken pox, and certain rashes. From the first two of these are dangers to be apprehended, of which the nurse should be aware, that she may take care to avoid them.

Measles.—In measles inflammation of the lungs and air passages are feared, so in this disease the greatest care must be taken to guard against exposure. Drafts of air are particularly dangerous. The temperature of

* If a child throws up milk some time after it has been taken, which is not curdled, it shows that the digestion is impaired, for it would be full of curds if it had been acted upon by the gastric juice.

the room should be kept at about 70° F. It should also be well ventilated. If necessary in ventilating the room screens may be used to protect the patient from draft. While the child must be kept warm, the clothing must not be made burdensome. The eyes are often left weak after measles, and to avoid this the room should be kept only moderately light. During the fever the diet should be light—milk, arrowroot and gruel being the chief articles allowed. Only a little cold water should be taken at a time, but the patient may drink freely of hot lemonade, and certain teas—as flaxseed and saffron. When the fever and eruption have nearly disappeared, broths may be added to the diet; boiled rice with milk, a baked apple or potato may be eaten, and the ordinary diet gradually resumed when the symptoms have entirely disappeared. But the child must still be kept in the same room, though feeling quite well, for a few days, and if the weather is at all cool a longer time yet must elapse before it can be allowed to go out of the house.

Scarlet fever.—The same general directions as to temperature, ventilation and care against exposure which have been given for measles, are equally important in scarlet fever. If the fever is high, and the child complains of heat, the temperature of the room may fall a few degrees, the object aimed at being that the child shall feel no chill. After the fever has subsided, and the child is pale and weak, the temperature may be maintained at 72°. Ventilation must not be forgotten. Pure air is here necessary to dilute the poisoned air of the room, which is loaded with the germs of the disease. A

screen should be placed around the bed to protect from draft, and two opposite windows, or a window and a door, should be constantly open, and the most thorough ventilation secured. Any feeling of chill the nurse must guard against, even three or four weeks after the child is first taken sick.

The diet, though usually somewhat more stimulating than in measles, will consist at first principally of milk, and the preparations of milk, and as the symptoms improve may be varied about the same as in measles. The same care must be used to keep the patient in the house for a long time, a month at least, after what seems a mild case of scarlet fever; for it has been noticed that dropsy, one of the diseases which the physician most dreads in scarlet fever, occurs even more frequently after a mild than after a severe case.

Precaution.—Measles and scarlet fever being contagious diseases, the patient should be isolated, and no one allowed in the room except those who have the care of the child. It should be remembered that the poison is often carried in the dress to other children who do not come near the room. Too much care cannot be taken not to spread either of the diseases, and especially scarlet fever. [See Prevention of Contagion, p. 20.]

Diphtheria.—Diphtheria is a very dreadful disease affecting the air passages. All the precautions which have been given in the rules laid down for the prevention of contagion (see page 20) are never more necessary than in this disease.

The discharges from the nose and throat are loaded

with the infectious germs. Rags should be used for these discharges, which should be immediately burnt.

One of the after effects of this disease is to produce more or less paralysis of the muscles of the throat, interfering with swallowing. This must be remembered after the patient has become convalescent, and food be given finely divided and in small mouthfuls, for death sometimes results from choking after the patient has nearly recovered.

Important points in diseases of the lungs and air passages.—Chilling of the body from insufficient clothing, too low a temperature of the nursery, or from exposure at the time of the bath, is the cause of most of the trouble arising from disease of the lungs or air passages. This cause is one which can usually be avoided with a little care. Remember then, the maxim, that prevention is better than cure, and study to protect the children from those injurious influences which may lead to serious results. Those who have the care of young children do not always realize that they are responsible for most of the sufferings of the little people from sickness. If we would not willingly expose ourselves to sickness, can we too greatly condemn or too religiously avoid the carelessness which would cause a helpless baby or child to suffer?

A cold is thought to be a slight thing, yet since one cold makes the way easier for another, it should not be so considered. A cold in the head is a great inconvenience to a nursing baby, interfering with its nursing sometimes to a serious extent. The sleep also becomes restless and disturbed. The warm bath will be found of

benefit, after which the child must be kept warm. The nostrils may be lubricated with oil by means of a camel's hair brush. Very young children with a cold ought to be confined to the house for a few days, unless the weather be very mild, when they may go out during the middle of the day. If there be any feverish symptoms, the child should remain in the house. The warm bath, the modification of the diet according to the rules for fever, and suitable clothing, will usually be all the treatment necessary.

Croup.—Croup is a very alarming disease. There are two forms of the disease, usually called true and false croup, and though the symptoms of each are alarming, one is much less dangerous than the other. It is this latter form, the false croup, to which so many children are subject upon slight exposure. In either case the attack comes on so suddenly that it is very important that those who are with the child know how they may relieve the distressing symptoms while anxiously waiting the arrival of the physician. These symptoms consist of a loud, barking cough, the voice becoming hoarse or whispering, and the breathing harsh and difficult. The child is really in danger of being suffocated. To a child two years old the nurse may give at once twenty or thirty drops of syrup of ipecac, and repeat it in ten minutes if the child is not relieved. The warm bath is also useful, and the foot-bath with mustard. The room should be warm, and the atmosphere may be made moist by keeping a kettle of water boiling on the fire.

Care should be taken with the diet of a child who is subject to croup. It should never be allowed anything

but simple and easily digested food, the evening meal especially being light, consisting principally of bread and milk.

In any inflammation of the lungs or air passages the child should be kept in a room the temperature of which should never be allowed to fall below 70° F., but should ordinarily be higher than that. Flannel should be worn next the skin, and all exposure must be carefully avoided for a long time. To relieve the thirst, which will often be very great, a little water should be given frequently. The diet, which should always be light, will be prescribed by the physician. When there is any fever it is better to keep young children in bed ; infants will want to be held sometimes in the lap, but they should be kept in bed the greater part of the time, and older children should be kept in bed though not very sick. A warm gown may be put on over the night dress, and they can amuse themselves, if so disposed, with books and toys.

Diseases of the stomach and bowels.—Most of the diseases of the stomach and bowels take their origin from improper diet. Indigestion generally shows itself in an infant in a change in the stools. In health these are yellow, and of a uniform consistence, but one of the first signs of incomplete digestion is the appearance of white clots, the cheesy part of the milk which has not been digested. The passages soon become more or less green, and if the trouble is not arrested, they become thin and watery, and the number of passages becomes increased to four, six, or eight in twenty-four hours.

Any of these symptoms show that the food is not in proportion to the digestive powers If the disturbance

is slight, a diminution in the amount of food, diluting the milk, and giving less at a time, may enable the child to digest what it takes. If the trouble occur in a nursing child who is at the same time taking other food, it should be restricted to the breast, unless the supply of milk be entirely insufficient. In warm weather infants need a drink of water now and then to make up for what they lose through perspiration. If the infant be bottle-fed, the trouble may have arisen from some carelessness about the food given it, or the utensils may not have been properly cleansed, and the milk thereby have been made sour.

When children are teething it is often necessary to make their diet lighter than ordinary.

In the hottest weather a frequent cause of the diarrhœa is the increased heat, which irritates the sensitive nerves of the skin, and finally exhausts them. This impression is transmitted to other parts of the nervous system, and the nutritive processes of the body are slackened, and the powers of digestion diminished. It is then that sponging of the body frequently in the course of the day is of the greatest benefit. It acts as a tonic to the exhausted nervous system. The bath, if repeated several times during the day, should be of short duration.

On the occurrence of diarrhœa in older children, the diet should be at once modified. Meat and vegetables should be discontinued; the food taken should be of the simplest kind and that which is most easily digested. The milk should be boiled, and may be thickened with arrowroot, rice

flour, or common wheat flour. Light broths may be allowed. Fruit should not be taken.

Children who have diarrhœa should not be cut off from out-door air in pleasant weather. Infants may take their accustomed exercise, but older children must be kept more quiet. They must also be suitably clad. Even in hot weather, flannel, if thin and soft, will not usually be uncomfortable; the gauze shirts should be worn, if nothing warmer is desired, though while sick a little warmer clothing than ordinary will not be burdensome.

In the more severe troubles with the stomach and bowels the physician will give very careful directions, which the nurse will follow with exactness. Rest and quiet are of the greatest importance. The child must be kept in bed; the horizontal position is better than the sitting posture, though the latter may be preferred. Fretting and worrying must not be allowed. The nurse must see that the child keeps warm. If the hands, feet, or nose become cool, the body should be wrapped in warm blankets; hot bottles may be put to the feet, and hot flannels appplied over the abdomen. Not much water should be taken at a time, but enough to quench the thirst may be allowed. When the child becomes better the diet may be increased, but with moderation.

Constipation.—Constipation is much less common among children; yet it is sometimes found. It may however usually be controlled by a proper attention to the diet. If existing in a nursing child, the mother should eat laxative food, or if this does not suffice, a little oatmeal gruel, strained and very thin, may be given to the child.

In older children oatmeal gruel, taken especially in the morning, and an avoidance at all times of concentrated foods, plenty of out-door air and exercise, will be all that is necessary in most cases. When a movement of the bowels is desirable, an enema is better than purgative medicines, for it should be remembered that the after effect of most purgative medicines is constipating, and they should therefore be avoided if possible. Rhubarb is less objectionable on this account than many other substances.

Diseases of the nervous system.—In any disease of the nervous system there is increased susceptibility to impressions; this is sometimes so great that a child is thrown into convulsions upon sudden movement. In disease of the brain there is increased susceptibility to light and sound. The room must therefore be kept quiet and darkened. The child must be moved as little as possible, and, when necessary, with the utmost gentleness. No quick or sudden movements should be made near the child. Loud talking should not be allowed in the room. The nurse should observe what things seem to disturb the child, and avoid them, if possible. Cleanliness must not be omitted; but a part of the body should be sponged at a time, and softly dried, with as little annoyance to the child as possible.

Convulsions.—Some children are liable to convulsions from derangement of the digestion and other causes. They occur not infrequently when a child is teething. The attack is often preceded by involuntary movements of the mouth or eyelids; then the eyes become fixed and the body rigid; the breathing is irregular, often

suspended for a few moments, and the face and surface of the body becomes dark red or livid. This condition is generally quickly followed by twitching or jerking of the limbs, and more often the arms than the legs commence a series of short, rapid movements ; there are also twitchings of the muscles of the face.

Upon the first sign of the attack the nurse should prepare a warm bath for the child ; the clothes should be at once loosened, and entirely or partially removed, and the child immersed in warm water ; at the same time cold water may be applied to the head. The child may be kept in the bath ten or fifteen minutes, if the convulsions continue so long, more hot water being added as necessary to keep the temperature at about 98°. After the bath, wrap the child in a warm blanket for a short time. The attack may be repeated, in which case the warm bath should be used as before. Quiet nursing is of the utmost importance in the after treatment.

St. Vitus' dance. — An irritable condition of the nervous system sometimes shows itself in convulsive movements of different muscles of the body, known as St. Vitus' dance. These movements are generally increased by emotion, or fatigue, also by the consciousness that they are observed ; hence, in the care of such a child, all causes of agitation should be avoided. It should not be allowed to play much with other children. It should, however, have cheerful surroundings, plenty of out-door air, and exercise, but not enough of the latter to get too tired. Hygiene is an important element in the treatment.

Paralysis.—Paralysis is an affection of the nervous

system which sometimes occurs in young children Those who are so unfortunate require almost constant care from the nurse that they do not suffer in their general health from lack of air and exercise. They should be kept much in the open air, and systematic friction must be used with the affected part, which, by increasing the circulation, that is always somewhat diminished, helps to keep up the nutrition and prevent wasting. The temperature of the paralyzed limb is usually a little lower than that of the rest of the body; it should therefore be more warmly clothed.

Diseases of nutrition.—Rickets.—Rickets is a disease of nutrition, caused principally by a lack of suitable food in infancy and early childhood, and aggravated by unhygienic influences, as impure air or water, and unwholesome and filthy surroundings. The occurrence of too frequent pregnancies in the mother is a common cause of rickets among children. This cause acts upon the child before birth—the mother being weak and already unable to nourish the child, and after birth the milk is poor in quality and incapable of supplying the wants of the system. In this disease the bones of the body are imperfectly developed. They contain less of the salts of lime, and remain soft and easily bent long after they ought to be quite hard and well formed. Children with this disease are slow to begin walking, and they should not be encouraged to walk too soon, for, as the bones are soft, they easily bend under the weight of the body, and the child soon presents the deformity of bow-legs. To guard against other deformities, the child must not be allowed to sit up long at a time, and when lying down,

should rest upon a firm, smooth mattress, with the head not much elevated. The child should be suitably and warmly clad, and should be taken much into the open air and sunlight. Baths and friction of the skin are very important. The child must have nourishing diet, consisting of food suitable to the age, plenty of milk, and when the teeth have not yet made their appearance, it may be given a little beef juice ; and later, tender meat, rarely cooked. The diet should consist largely of animal food. Vegetables should be partaken of sparingly, and potatoes prohibited.

Consumption.—There are other conditions of defective nutrition. Perhaps the most common is found in the children of consumptive parents, who early show signs of delicate health. Such children need careful training to prevent the development of the dreadful disease—consumption. Suitable food and clothing, air and exercise are necessary, and especially regular and appropriate gymnastic exercises to counteract the defective development of the chest, which usually exists in these cases. All possible care must be taken not to expose them to the common diseases of childhood—measles and whooping cough.

SOME POINTS IN REGARD TO THE HYGIENE OF CHILDREN.

Diet.—The nursing infant needs nothing except the mother's milk until the appearance of the first teeth. If the mother's milk seems insufficient to satisfy the child, it may be fed also on cow's milk from the spoon or bottle. Nursing must not be broken off too abruptly, and great

care must be taken to prepare the food of the child, so that it shall be suited to the strength of the digestive organs. It is generally found better to wean the child first from day nursing, while the mother still continues to nurse it once in the evening and again later in the night. In the morning we may give gruels or light porridge made with milk and water, and any of the following substances :—Arrowroot, rice flour, wheat flour dried in the oven, and oatmeal. Gruel from the latter should be strained. These may be varied according to the preference of the child, or the condition of the bowels : if inclined to be constipated, oatmeal is useful ; if relaxed, gruel from rice flour is better. Cow's milk with bread or crackers may also be given. Milk, however, is the principal article of food up to the age of eighteen months, and all through the period of childhood should enter largely into the diet.

The child should ordinarily be weaned at from twelve to fifteen months. By this time the stomach has become accustomed to other food, and will not suffer from the deprivation of the breast milk. It is desirable that a child under one year of age be nourished at the breasts during the hot months ; especially if living in the city it is often disastrous to make any change.

When the child has teeth enough to masticate it, it may be fed a little finely-divided, tender meat once a day, and even before this it may be given a little beef juice or animal broth.

The food of children should always be plain,—rich, or highly-seasoned food being prohibited. Tea or coffee should not be given them. Sugar is not injurious, used

with moderation, but should not be eaten too often, or it will be likely to diminish the appetite. Salt is the only condiment which children need, and this is really an essential article of food. Children will occasionally like a little salt in the water which they drink, and it often seems to increase the appetite when it is delicate.

The meals of children should be arranged with regularity, and they should not be allowed to eat between meals; only it must be remembered that they will require a larger number of meals than the adult. The evening meal should be light, consisting of bread and milk, or similar food.

Air.—Children need pure air, and plenty of it. Their sleeping apartments should always be well ventilated. As soon as an infant is a month old it may be taken out in the open air every day, for a short time if it be in the coldest season, for they are very susceptible to the cold, though well wrapped in flannels, but they may remain out much longer in warm weather. When children are old enough to engage in active sports, they may spend most of the day in the open air if the weather is pleasant, and the weather is seldom stormy enough to keep them in the house all day.

Exercise.—Children will get exercise if they are only allowed to do so, or if it is not made difficult or impossible by clothing which restrains all natural movement. It should not be supposed that little girls require less exercise than little boys.

Clothing.—Much could be said about the clothing of children, but all might perhaps be briefly summed up. Only a little common sense is needed to make children

very comfortable. The fashion of their garments should be such as not to restrain all free and natural movement, adapted also to the season and the weather.

Baths.—A cold bath every morning will render a child much less susceptible to external influences, and much less liable to take cold upon slight exposure. The infant should have warm baths, but these can gradually be made a little cooler, until at eighteen months or two years the child enjoys a cold bath. The bath is often a needless torture to a child, because not well managed. It should be short, of no more than two minutes' duration, and followed by friction until reaction is established, and the skin is glowing with warmth. Then the dressing should be accomplished as quickly as possible.

Sleep.—When the child is put in the crib from the first, without previously rocking, good habits of sleep are formed, and there is no further trouble. But sometimes when an infant has been sickly or delicate, those who have the care of it are suddenly surprised to find that it has contracted the habit of going to sleep in the arms or on the lap. If the child is seriously sick, principles must be laid aside, if necessary. If delicate, it may be drawn about the house for diversion and change of scene. Good habits are really more important to such a child than to one who is more robust. It seems a kindness to a delicate child to hold it in the lap, or to rock it to sleep, but it is easy to get it into the way of sleeping so lightly that it will waken when laid into the crib, or if it does not feel the warmth of some person beside it. Such sleep is much less refreshing than that of the child with well-regulated habits, and the result is the

child becomes constantly peevish and irritable. But if bad habits have been insidiously formed, they cannot be gradually broken off. At the proper time the child must be put in bed and left there. Its cries must be resisted, and in a few days it will fall asleep at once.

Young children need a great deal of sleep. They should go to bed early. Eight o'clock is not too early for children under ten years of age. Excitement should be avoided in the evening.

CHAPTER XII.

COOKING FOR THE SICK.

THE general principles which lie at the foundation of the art of cooking must be well understood by the nurse, but cannot be taught in the compass of this little work. Indeed some practical work in the kitchen under a competent instructor is necessary, and this branch of instruction is not neglected in the Bellevue Training School.

The nurse must know that in cooking meat it is important to lose as little as possible of its properties; but meat which is to be used for beef-tea, soups, or broths is treated in just an opposite way, for it is desired to extract the nutritious juices. Flesh of young animals is more tender but less digestible than that of animals of middle age. Mutton taxes the weak stomach less than beef. Pork is very difficult to digest, and therefore not suitable for the sick. Shell fish are generally regarded as indigestible; but oysters are nutritious, and are often well adapted for use in the sick room, and are quite easy of digestion if taken raw. Milk and eggs are very valuable foods; the latter should never be cooked until the white of the egg is hard. Eggs should never be boiled, but should be put into a dish of boiling water

and immediately covered. The dish should be removed from the fire, and the eggs will be well cooked in five minutes. Gruels require very thorough cooking.

The following is a table of the time taken to digest certain articles of food :—

Hours to digest	One pound of
3	Meat.
3½	Cheese.
2	Milk.
3	Eggs.
4	Veal.
4	Fowls.
4	Pork.
1	Tripe.
3½	Bread.
3½	Potatoes, boiled.
2	Potatoes, roasted.
4½	Cabbage.
2½	Beans.

RECEIPTS.

Beef-tea.—Cut the meat of a rump-steak into fine dice (having first removed all skin, fat and gristle), put it into a large-mouthed bottle, add a little salt, cork it tightly, put it in a saucepan of cold water, and let it boil for six hours ; then skim, strain, season, and serve it hot.

Quick way of making beef-tea.—Half a pound of beef chopped fine and soaked for ten minutes with a little salt in cold water, then put on the fire at the back of the

range, so that it may come very slowly to the boiling point. Let it boil three minutes, and then serve hot.

Beef juice.—Score and broil one minute pieces of beef about the size of the palm of the hand. Express the juice in a lemon squeezer. Add a pinch of salt, and before serving make it hot. One pound of beef makes three tablespoonfuls of juice.

Sago and beef-tea.—After washing thoroughly two tablespoonfuls of pearl sago, put it to soak in one-half pint of water, and then stew it in the same water for one hour. Mix with it half a pint of boiling cream and the beaten yolks of two eggs, and mingle the whole with a pint of beef-tea. This should be made just as the patient needs it, as soups with cream or milk are apt to curdle.

Egg nogg.—The yolk of an egg beaten, a tablespoonful of boiling water stirred into a wineglass of cream, and a tablespoonful of sugar. The white beaten very light and stirred in, and last of all, a half wineglass of rum and half wineglass of sherry with a little nutmeg on the top; serve at once.

Nourishing mutton chop.—Take *three* mutton chops and broil them together, so that the juice of the upper and under ones go into the middle one, which is the chop you are to give to your patient. You must always broil by a very bright hot fire.

Plain boiled bread and milk.—Put stale bread into a basin, the pieces of equal size; boil a pint of milk and pour over the bread, cover the basin with a plate for ten minutes, the bread will then be evenly soaked; a little sugar may be added.

Oatmeal or Indian meal gruel.—Mix the meal smoothly with cold water, and then stir it into *boiling* water, previously salted; a pint of water to two or three tablespoonfuls of oatmeal or Indian meal, accordingly as you wish the gruel thick or thin. Boil two hours.

Caudle is oatmeal gruel with raisins boiled in the water, and a little wine or brandy added; a little sugar and some spices.

To poach an egg.—Have ready a saucepan of boiling water; break an egg carefully into a tea-cup, so that the yolk is not burst, and put the tea-cup into the saucepan. Let it simmer for three minutes, and then take it out very carefully. Bread toasted lightly should be placed in the dish or plate, and the egg slipped upon it from the cup.

White wine whey.—Put half a pint of new milk, slightly sweetened, into a saucepan, and boil it; the moment it rises, while still on the fire, pour in a small glass of white wine. Let it boil up again, and set the saucepan on the side till the curd forms one lump; be careful not to stir it; the whey will pour off free from the curd.

Arrowroot.—A dessertspoonful of arrowroot will thicken about half a pint of water. Mix the arrowroot in a little cold water, then add by degrees the half pint of boiling water, stirring it all the time until it is of a pleasant thickness; boil for five minutes; put a little wine or brandy in it, sweeten with lump sugar, and grate a little nutmeg on the top. Boiling milk may be used instead of water.

Corn starch and farina may be made in the same way as arrowroot.

Tapioca, sago, and semolina should be soaked in cold water for five or six hours, then simmered in the same water until the grains are clear. Eggs and milk may be added to the tapioca, &c., and a little sugar, after which it may be boiled or baked.

WEIGHTS AND MEASURES.

gr.j = 1 grain.
℈j = 20 grains = one scruple.
ʒ ss = 30 grains = half a drachm.
ʒ i = 60 grains = one drachm.
℥ ss = 4 drachms = half an ounce.
℥ j = 8 drachms = one ounce.

mj = one minim = one drop.
f ʒ i = 60 minims = one fluid drachm = one teaspoonful.
f ʒ ii = 2 fluid drachms = one dessertspoonful.
f ℥ ss = 4 fluid drachms = one tablespoonful.
f ℥ i = 8 fluid drachms = one fluid ounce = 2 tablespoonfuls.
f ℥ ii = 2 fluid ounces = one wineglassful.
Oj = one pint = 20 ounces.

IMPORTANT THINGS FOR EVERY NURSE TO REMEMBER WHEN SHE GOES TO PRIVATE CASES.

Remember to be extremely neat in dress; to have the hair smooth, and caps and aprons clean; a few drops of hartshorn in the water used for *daily* bathing will remove the disagreeable odors of warmth and perspiration.

Never speak of the symptoms of your patient in his presence, unless questioned by the doctor, whose orders you are always to obey *implicitly*.

Remember never to be a gossip or tattler, and "always to hold sacred the knowledge which, to a certain extent, you must obtain of the private affairs of your patient, and the household in which you nurse."

Try to give as little trouble to the servants as possible, and make them feel that you have come to help them in the extra work that sickness always brings.

Never contradict your patient, nor argue with him, nor let him see that you are annoyed about anything.

Never *whisper* in the sick room. If your patient be well enough, and wishes you to talk to him, speak in a low, distinct voice, on cheerful subjects. Don't relate painful hospital experiences, nor give details of the maladies of former patients, and remember never to startle him with accounts of dreadful crimes or accidents that you have read in the newspapers.

Write down the orders that the physician gives you as to time for giving the medicines, food, &c.

Give an account of your patient to the physician in as few words as possible.

Keep the room bright (unless the doctor *orders* it darkened).

Let the air be as pure as you can, airing it from outside, "as windows are made to open."

Keep everything in order, but without being fussy and bustling.

The only way to remove dust is to wipe everything with a damp cloth.

Remember to carry out all vessels covered. Empty and wash them immediately, and keep "Girondin," or some other disinfectant, in them.

Remember, that to leave the patient's untasted food by his side, from meal to meal, in hopes that he will eat it in the interval, is simply to prevent him from taking any food at all.

Medicines, beef-tea or stimulants, should never be kept where the patient can see them, or smell them.

Remember "that we have no power of ourselves to help ourselves," but that God is ever willing to grant us strength to perform our duties, if we pray to Him in the name of our Blessed Saviour.

NOTE.—See page **25.**

TEMPERATURE AND PULSE.

To measure the temperature of the body the thermometer is used, and is placed usually under the tongue, where it should remain with the lips closed for five minutes. It is sometimes placed in the axilla, and sometimes, especially with young children, in the groin or rectum. The temperature taken in the axilla in the healthy person is about $98\frac{4}{5}^{\circ}$; taken in the mouth or rectum it is about one-half a degree higher. A higher temperature than this, shows a greater or less degree of fever.

The radial artery at the wrist is most convenient for counting the pulse. In healthy adults, the number of beats often varies, ranging usually from 72 to 78 per minute in different persons. The pulse is always a little more rapid in children.

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